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Continuing The Historical Outlook

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Contents

National Defense and the Schools	A. F. Ross	243
Civic Competence: Classical or Controversial?	Deobold Van Dalen	246
Making the Social Studies an Adventure in Individualized Teaching	Texie Smyth	247
Geographical Interpretation of History	Ruhl J. Barlett	250
Revised Historical Viewpoints	Ralph B. Guinness	253
History Textbooks and International Attitudes	Harriet Knight Orr	254
Geographic Games and Tests	W. O. Blanchard	255
The City: A Social Studies Class	Frank Meyer	260
A Psychological Approach to World History	Anastasia Furman	262
Illustrated Section	Daniel C. Knowlton	263
Student Life in the Medieval Universities	Ellen Perry Pride	267
Student Reports in the Social Studies	M. P. Moffatt and J. R. Craf	271
News and Comment	M. Wolf	273
Book Reviews and Book Notes	Richard Heindel	278
Current Publications Received		287

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The Social Studies

Continuing The Historical Outlook

VOLUME XXXII, NUMBER 6

OCTOBER, 1941

National Defense and the Schools

A. F. ROSS

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Teaching democracy is no longer, if it ever was, a simple task. Professor Carl Becker, writing in *The Yale Review* in June, 1939, called attention to the fact that democratic virtues are in the nature of spiritual luxuries and are derived from the assumptions upon which democracy rests. These include the belief that men are disposed to be reasonable creatures; that they are, in the main, men of good will. But the most important—the fundamental assumption—is the worth and dignity and creative capacity of the individual. It follows that the virtues represented by democracy do not readily flourish in all climates. Hence it is, that the present economic and political climate of Europe has all but killed the fragile plant.

Now that our American way of life is threatened, not only from without our borders, but still more seriously from within our own fold, the public is disposed to ask to what extent are the schools responsible for the condition? Have they failed in some fundamental duty in not providing defenses for democracy? Is it possible that the textbook writers are the real culprits, it is asked? Proceeding along that line of inquiry, an attack, quite naïve if not adolescent, has been launched against textbooks in use in the schools. If the public would only realize that textbooks are just what their names indicate, i.e., books of texts or topics, much useful energy would be saved for fighting real enemies in more worthy causes. A textbook is, after all, a pretty dry

compilation of facts and will mean to pupils just about what a teacher makes it mean.

The most effective teacher of the American way of life is life itself. So considered, the teaching of democracy has been largely a by-product. It has been taken as a matter of course, like the atmosphere we breathe. One of our great historians, F. J. Turner, developed the classic idea of the frontier as the fountain source of our democratic system of government. Is it not possible, however, that Turner was simply setting forth the underlying conditions which democracy requires for existence anywhere? Frontier society represents the simple life in which all participating members are on the same social and economic level. Questions in dispute in such a society can be settled easily by discussion, because there is nothing crucially important to be settled. Such is the simplicity of life in the forest cantons of Switzerland. How needless it would be for the Swiss schoolmaster in such a locality to try to teach his pupils how to be loyal and patriotic where the children breathe loyalty and patriotism in the very air.

Such simplicity is no longer a part of the American picture. Thomas Jefferson was approaching the sunset of life when the controversy over slavery in the Missouri Territory arose. To Jefferson the angry clash sounded like a firebell ringing in the night. But there are firebells in numbers resounding in the night at present.

On the walls of the rotunda of Rockefeller Centre

is a succession of mural paintings. At the end of the series is a picture representing the machine, and the question is raised: "Master or servant, which?" That is just one of the problems which the teacher must face. Will Rogers shortly before his untimely death gave expression to one of his many homely aphorisms: "We, as Americans, will be for or against the Constitution, just in proportion as we believe the Constitution will be profitable to each of us personally." If we look for a more scholarly statement of the same philosophy we can find it in the teaching of John Dewey: "Democracy is the faith that the process of experience is more important than any special result attained . . . and faith in democracy is all one with faith in experience and education."

However, there is one important corrective the teacher of democracy needs to apply in evaluating experience and experimenting. It makes a decided difference who does the experimenting. After all, experience and experimenting are but an activity of evolution, and nations and peoples have evolved downward to destruction and oblivion as well as upward. William Penn once remarked: "Governments, like clocks, are made by men, and by men both may be utterly destroyed." Governments may be well designed and foolishly administered. Democratic government, in particular, cannot exist in the midst of class warfare abetted and fomented by selfish and ignoble leaders. Will Rogers intimated that the gentlemen in blue denim require, as a product of democracy, a full dinner pail. It becomes the duty of defenders of democracy to demonstrate that democracy will keep the dinner pail better supplied than will any form of dictatorship. It is not the highest appeal that democracy has to make, but it is a valid appeal as far as it goes. A method of proving the claim is set forth in the periodical, *Steel Facts*. The demonstration may be condensed into the following statement to indicate that the American workman, at least in the steel industry, makes a better living than similar workmen in other countries. How many hours must a workman labor to earn enough to buy the following basket of provisions?

1 lb. bacon; 1 lb. chuck beef; 1 lb. white bread;
1 lb. butter; 1 lb. potatoes; 1 lb. sugar; 1 doz. eggs;
1 qt. milk.

U.S.A.—1½ hours

English—3¼ hours

French—4½ hours

Swedish—5 hours

German—6½ hours

If economic depression brought forth the Hitler Youth Movement and Naziism, we must not marvel if similar strains put new pressure upon democratic practices in America. Chateaubriand's statement: "The French Revolution was accomplished before it began" may be an explanation as to why it oc-

curred, but it is also a warning to us. It indicates, also, why the teaching of American democracy is so difficult today. There are so many swirling currents that make up the stream of life, that, like the Father of Waters, gather up many contributing currents, some of them yellow and muddy and some of them unquestionably filthy. However, the call to perform the task stands, and is insistent, even compelling.

The president of the Rockefeller Foundation in his report for 1939 says: "The most frightening aspect of modern war is the intellectual blackout which it creates." H. G. Wells' prophecy: "Mankind which began in a cave and behind a windbreak, will end in the diseased soaked ruins of the slums," presents merely a variation of the same picture. The ruin, physical and spiritual, that has been rained upon the schools and institutions of Europe threatens the very life of everything that intelligence stands for. The entire world engulfed in war, the frustration of men, the confusion over issues and values, the contempt poured upon constitutional principles, these are some of the many firebells ringing in the night.

Count Cavour, the great Italian liberal, remarked nearly a century ago: "Anyone can rule by martial law." In that pithy statement, Cavour gathers up all of the potency of the world struggle which is now on. Why do men reject reason and accept force as the short cut in the solving of problems? Possibly it is because it is the easy method and the short cut. Teachers of the ways of free people know that force defeats itself and solves no problems. In spite of the noisy clash of arms the work of the teacher will be the permanent work. One assurance every teacher has—youth is still incorrigibly idealistic and responsive to leadership. Now, as ever, the youth of the land confront teachers as though with spiritual arms outstretched, ready to be led by the right kind of leaders. Teachers need to beware, however, that every child may be equipped with a pair of those magic Titbottom spectacles.

Rule by martial law is the law of the jungle, of tooth and fang. Only "when the virtues of democracy disintegrate," to use Professor Becker's forceful title does the primeval law of the jungle supersede the rule of reason. The real fortification of America, after all, is not in armies, or even in industrial plants and in production. America has a peculiar genius in such lines, and in such undertakings can outmatch the rest of the world. The fortification of America resides in a different realm, the realm of the spirit. It is in that sphere that the discipline of the spirit must be set up that will guide and inspire a free people. That is the task of the schools. The teacher must nurture the kind of mental life that will prove the very antithesis of martial law. It is the hard way, but it is the productive and

the successful way.

Admittedly, democracy is on trial. American teachers are expected to be, and should be, experts in the defense of democracy. The teacher dare not be a defeatist. He must not wait for the battle to come to him. He must believe with Marshall Foch: "To make war is to attack," and he must also believe: "That battles are won or lost in the minds of those who fight them." In doing this work he cannot depend upon ancient and moth eaten methods. Intelligence must fight with its own weapons to maintain itself against the noise of marching feet.

Scientists tell us that to know the humblest clod of earth thoroughly would be equivalent to knowing the universe. In a similar vein it may be said that lessons in support of faith in democracy may be drawn from every page of history, provided our vision and discernment are sufficiently acute. President Butler states that in his judgment, Francis Lieber was the greatest teacher of history that he had ever known. He would send a number of students to the blackboard to outline the course of events in different countries in a given period. After corrections and criticisms the students returned to their seats. Then the professor was accustomed to remark: "Now gentlemen, you have the facts, but you do not know what they mean. I will now proceed to tell you what they mean." There would then follow a brilliant and illuminating exposition. Professor Lieber was performing the duty which falls to every teacher of Americanism—the art of giving meaning to the meaningless.

Another approach to the problem of evaluating democracy is given by another eminent historian, Professor E. P. Cheyney.¹ Someone is likely to raise the charge that any deliberate attempt to prove the superiority of democracy as a form of government by appealing to the record of history will lead directly to indoctrination. It is of advantage, therefore, to quote a student of history whose critical scholarship is beyond impeachment. Professor Cheyney selects three periods in English history that were relatively similar as to problems. To these periods which represented respectively, autocratic, aristocratic, and democratic government he applies five tests to determine which of the three types of government proved superior.

The first period, from 1600 to 1618 represents the autocratic government of the closing years of Elizabeth's reign and the major part of the reign of James I. The second period, 200 years later, from 1800 to 1818, represents the aristocratic rule of the so called "governing classes." Parliament was the real ruler, but represented only about 100,000 of

the population. The third period, the democratic period from 1900 to 1918 represents England after a century of struggle and progress toward complete democracy.

Five tests of efficiency are applied. First in order is the financial test. How were taxes levied, collected, and expended in the democratic period as compared with the other periods? The record shows that they were collected more justly, more effectively and with a higher regard for social benefits in the democratic period than in either the autocratic or aristocratic periods. The second test is effectiveness in war. Democracies are not more inclined to war than autocracies; quite the contrary, they are slow and hesitant in entering war. The records will speak for themselves in the three periods. On the other hand, democracy carries no guarantee of peace, but if war comes the record, also, shows that a democracy will fight more effectively. The third test is the treatment of dependencies. How did England treat Ireland in the time of Elizabeth, or in the time of James I as compared with the treatment under democracy? How has England treated Canada, Australia, South Africa, in the three periods? Fourth, which type of government has done most for the encouragement of literature? The burst of literary genius in the reign of Elizabeth and of James I owed little or nothing to the government. In the intellectual history of England, plain, democratic government has been more friendly to things of the mind than either of the other types. The fifth, and last, test applied is the service of government to human progress. Autocratic and aristocratic governments have turned coldly away from humanitarian reforms. The democratic government has proved more discerning and more ardent in the efforts to lift the lives of all the citizens.

This brief and quite inadequate summary of Professor Cheyney's analysis is given chiefly as an illustration of the possible uses of historical material in throwing light on the comparative advantages of democratic government. Other tests may be conceived. Any period may be subjected to analysis.

Schools have been criticized because of their aloofness from the realities of life. They have been compared to the medieval castle, with moat and drawbridge. The drawbridge is lowered in the morning to admit teachers and pupils. Again at night it is lowered and pupils and teachers return to the world of affairs. Possibly we need to return to the method of the ancient Greek philosopher, who made his instruction timely and vital by conducting his pupils through the streets of Athens, and by explaining the conditions of life as they appeared. No doubt democracy should be taught by the same direct method. It should be taught, also, as exemplified in the lives of great Americans who gave all they had to American ideals. It cannot be taught at all by those who are so tinged

¹ *Law in History and Other Essays*, Chapter IV (New York: F. S. Crofts and Company, 1927). Summary given with the permission of the publishers.

with foreign ideologies that they see only defects in American institutions and in the lives of those who have given their all to those institutions. Teachers might better emulate the example of the great his-

torian, J. F. Jameson, who was accustomed to tell his students that "he was not so much concerned with the fact that great men had defects as he was that these men were great in spite of their defects."

Civic Competence: Classical or Controversial?

DEOBOLD VAN DALEN

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An ominous cloud is casting its shadow over the question of teaching contemporary problems within the schools. Heralded by the outstanding voice of President Hutchins of the University of Chicago and recently amplified in syndicated articles by Dorothy Thompson and Walter Lippmann, the movement deprecates the continuance of teaching of contemporary problems in our schools and urges a return to the classics for our basic knowledge of understanding contemporary problems.

Already there are signs that this movement is spreading and will become more acute as the international conflicts and emotions are increasingly stirred in this country. As the war hysteria increases, freedom within the school undoubtedly will be vigorously questioned. And even worse, matters not of war, but generally hatred, will become confused with war hatreds. The confusion arising from such a crisis commands the attention and action of every thoughtful citizen and school leader. Against all such, rightminded people must set themselves resolutely. The schools cannot dodge a consideration of the great issues of this dramatic yet dangerous period without betraying the democracy they are supposed to serve. Civic competency—shall it be by the way of the classics or by controversial issues?

It is by understanding historical backgrounds, deep-lying trends and social movements, that we can see our life today and possibly detect forces that may have produced the present. With a great body of significant historical facts, one may project probable lines of development into the future. Educators generally recognize that this learning proceeds only through the gradual accumulation of experience. The pupils' understanding of the world in which he lives grows bit by bit. It is a cumulative process. This inductive method assumes that the students will grow in power of generalization only as they steadily accumulate wider and wider horizons of meanings, and continually by practice draw more and more com-

plicated generalizations from the facts and apply them to the study of problems of contemporary life. Consequently, the students must not only assimilate historical facts but also gain constant practice in decision-making with facts.

The development of this ability to think deliberately and critically about contemporary problems will grow only through practice in thinking about modern living problems. However, Mr. Lippmann conveys the impression in a recent article that the way to ensure good citizenship and understanding of the contemporary problems in the present state of world turmoil and social instability is first to discontinue the teaching of contemporary problems when he says: "Neither logic nor experience justifies the assumption that a high school student will be prepared for his adult world by offering him debatable opinions of the world in which we are adults." Secondly, it is to put the young people to the task of studying the classics when he writes:

My notion is that the older curriculum was in principle right, and that the way to prepare for contemporary affairs is to study the classics of human affairs. Then, for example, the best educational preparation for an understanding of this war would be a study of the wars of Napoleon and the wars of Marlborough, and then back of them, perhaps, of the Crusades; and first of all, I should think, as the proper foundation, the Persian and the Punic wars.

It is difficult to understand how the American citizen of today and tomorrow will obtain the necessary training in thoughtful and rational consideration of the impending issues relative to World War II by a knowledge of the classics coupled with ignorance of today's vital problems. The separation of facts from their application makes Mr. Lippmann's fundamental hypothesis seem absurd. Educational procedure today recommends the acquisition of facts and ideas through experience followed by the ex-

pression of students' critical thinking on problems of the moment. The wisdom of the past is meaningless to the student unless he sees it in relation to the problems of the living world today. We cannot assume that a student mastery of the classics gives an adult proper insight into contemporary problems. We have no definite assurance that learning in one area of subject matter may be transferred to another subject matter area.

During the trying and dangerous days which lie ahead, the cherished institution of America will be safe in proportion as the masses of people are trained to study thoughtfully and logically the great issues which are being present today. When the study and discussion of controversial issues ceases, democracy ceases. Controversial issues are the life-line of democracy. We cannot choke the dissemination of ideas which are being incessantly transmitted to us through the medium of radio and press about public questions. We cannot keep the masses of people from hearing and discussing issues which strike at the roots of American tradition and policy. We cannot, even by censorship, keep the people in complete ignorance and subjugation. Then, it seems plausible that the masses of people are to hear and talk about issues most vital to our American life. The question remains, where will our people be taught to consider these vital issues of contemporary life openmindedly and logically? Certainly, we cannot expect adults to analyze issues critically if they have not been taught the art of studying public problems.

Suppose, according to Mr. Lippmann and others, who seem to have so little confidence in the integrity and ability of the teachers to perform their functions, that we deny teachers the privilege of guiding youth in search, sifting and weighing of evidence concerning the gravest issues confronting the American populace today. Where will the student obtain the

facts of our day, if the school eliminates free discussion? Are the newspapers and periodicals they perchance read a more reliable source than the graded materials of the teacher? Are the ideas gleaned from conversations and speeches more dependable than ideas systematically brought to their attention in the classroom? Whose duty is it to maintain free, thoughtful, and considerate discussion? It seems that if we are to have the consent of a democratic people it must be constructed upon the issues of the people. Such study is the intellectual foundation of the school curriculum. Students can learn to participate effectively in a democracy only through practice; and practice commences in our schools only where independent judgments can be formed in an atmosphere of freedom and under circumstances which guarantee the free interchange of opinion. How else can the students practice decision-making than by confronting issues? The absence of issues results in an absence of thought.

A democratic conception of education would require the young to learn progressively, under decreasingly directive guidance, how to think critically, how to judge objectively, and how to act responsibly, in order that from the first the learner should be so treated that he may grow toward a reliable independence of thinking. As the learner grows older he should deal increasingly with the contemporary issues about him. Only in these ways is he being prepared for the active duties of civic competency. Democracy's ultimate safeguard is the enlightened conscience of the citizen. Being a people's government ours must depend for its perpetuation on the civic competency of the masses. National survival and progress look inevitably to the future and must be greatly concerned with rational thinking and responsible acting by those who will be the Americans of tomorrow.

Making the Social Studies an Adventure in Individualized Teaching

TEXIE SMYTH

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For a number of years, in the the social studies department of the Thomas Jefferson High School, there was a growing dissatisfaction with the subject-compartmentalized plan for teaching the social sciences. The traditional requirement was, for all pupils, a year of world history and a year of American history with elective offerings for the senior year of economics, sociology and civics. Non-prepara-

tory pupils were urged to take at least two of the electives. Many of the college preparatory students chose courses from the electives of the social studies department. But there was a growing realization of the inadequacy of formal courses to meet the needs and interests of youth. Traditional courses primarily predicated need for college preparation, whereas approximately seventy-five per cent of our pupils

never darkened the doors of a college. Also, such courses, we felt were failing to challenge the interest or arouse pupils to a sense of responsibility for their own growth in the understanding of problems for which they had a felt need. The situation presented a lesson-learning process for the major purpose of obtaining a credit toward graduation from high school or for the purpose of presenting units for college entrance.

Through a period of reading such books as *A Charter for the Social Sciences* and its companion volumes, and in addition studying the needs of current society in relation to the educational problems of youth today, there developed a realization that our pupils were not being challenged to accept the individual responsibility that they should assume, nor were we, their instructors, teaching pupils with as much zeal as we should. Rather, we were zealously teaching subjects, hoping pupils would learn the courses being served to them. Much talk about "meeting individual needs" was attacking our honored old system of traditional courses. Discussion in departmental meetings resulted in varied attempts to meet more definitely the need of youth. All sorts of new techniques were tried—projects, units, enrichment materials, socialized recitation, and others. But teachers grew more convinced that, for many pupils, the social studies had no vital interest or meaning.

Gradually there evolved, by the autumn of 1936, a course of study designated "the new curriculum." It abandoned courses in history, economics, sociology, and civics, as such, and presented units built for the purpose of aiding pupils to realize the essential elements of society and its problems, and to challenge them to desire ways and means for the solution of such problems. After a year's experience with the new program, teachers were found to be varying greatly in their choices of units to be taught. They were discovering that it was impossible to teach all units contained in the courses of study. Gradually they were being enabled to select those units which presented the greatest challenge to their classes. By the 1939-40 school year, pupils themselves were collaborating with teachers in the selection of units to be studied in their classes. Before the year closed the mimeographed copies of the department's courses of study were finding their way back to the store-room shelves. At present only one copy is even in the hands of a teacher. Today pupil-teacher planning of the curriculum has evolved. In the case of some it is pupil-teacher planning for the class, or for groups of pupils in the class. For at least three teachers it has reached the stage of the individual pupil planning with his teacher the problem which seems best to meet his needs and interests. The philosophy that the needs of the individual are basic in the teaching process is fast gaining adherents, but the task

of the accomplishment of such an ideal with the large classes in our school now presents an almost unsurmountable difficulty.

Nevertheless the challenge was accepted in the school year 1939-40 by the three social studies teachers who were allotted classes totaling 350 incoming low sophomores with the promise that they were to keep the same pupils for at least four semesters. The experience proved a struggle for both pupils and instructors, because an orientation of both to a new situation was necessary.

The average pupil enters high school imbued by his parents and society with ideas of rather rigid courses of study to be pursued. Instead of being presented with the expected textbook of ancient history and an assignment to take home, he is somewhat baffled by chatty classroom discussions of the meaning and function of a high school education, followed by plans for his own high school career and possibly beyond. Discussions to discover his personal needs and interests and what contributions the social studies may offer to help him carry out his plans often cause him to forget his anticipated formal course. In case he becomes insistent that he study history (usually due to home reactions) provisions are made for his doing so. First, for the class or group and later for the individual, ways and means of evaluating the choice of a problem are determined through pupil-teacher solution of the problem. From time to time as the need arises the following responsibilities are realized and accepted by each individual:

- (1) Working out tentative plans for the problem to be studied.
- (2) Collecting and caring for materials.
- (3) Estimating and determining time needed.
- (4) Sifting data, organizing and drawing conclusions, listing references.
- (5) Improving English skills.
- (6) Building class reference files.
- (7) Contributing to department vertical files.
- (8) Sharing with others—family, class, community—the values derived.
- (9) Evaluating references, learning, practical applications, growth in the development of skills, work habits, and sense of responsibility and ability to solve problems.

If the adjustment to a new situation in classroom procedure and subject matter is a struggle for the pupil it is, possibly even more, a battle for the teacher. New planning techniques must be evolved, built up from recognized needs of not only the skills, habits and understandings of each pupil, but much more than heretofore the teacher must know a great deal about each member of the class. The acquisition of such knowledge demands acquaintance with all available records, possibly questionnaires and many personal contacts with the individual and any one

who may be able to contribute desired information concerning him. All of which entails many records, indeed a new type of recording to indicate pupil progress as well as useful information about him. Pupil analysis and pupil guidance become almost consuming activities of a teacher's class time and preparation time. Likewise new techniques for class planning must necessarily include long range and daily planning. The former will contain briefs of the group's background of experiences in the social studies; charts of problems studied; lists of possible problems, charts of pupil choices, time estimates, and progress made; goals to be attained in skills, habits and responsibility; devices for improving pupil-reporting and for unifying the work of the class. Daily planning involves a multiplicity of details such as providing needed help for individuals, materials, library passes, aid in interpreting materials, conferences for checking progress, advice regarding organization, devices for encouraging or admonishing pupils as the need arises. Time must be provided for planning with pupils various types of classroom activities involving individuals, small groups or the class as a whole. Schedules for work periods, reporting periods and periods for discussions of classroom problems must be anticipated and provided for in the daily plans. New methods for evaluating the whole program, its execution, and pupil reaction must be studied.

Perhaps a bird's-eye view of a class in action may not be amiss. The one chosen is a class in the third semester of its work. Its membership consisted of twenty-eight pupils of low average ability, seven of whom claimed they were planning for college. It is doubtful whether more than three or four actually will go. During the previous two semesters, pupils had felt common needs for the studying of the following problems:

- (1) What can my school do for me and what can I return to it?
- (2) What should be my educational plans?
- (3) What opportunities does my home offer for educational advancement?
- (4) What opportunities does my community offer?
- (5) How has America developed her free public school system?
- (6) What are the essentials of the American ideal of democracy?
- (7) How can I develop myself so as to become a better member of society?

As the work progressed there was a growing tendency for pupils to discover some problem within the class group problem. Therefore, by the close of the first year, pupils were largely setting for themselves the task of working out an individual problem.

When the questions of ways of working and

problems to be chosen were raised at the beginning of the third semester, pupils were very decided in their convictions that each one should be allowed to make his own choice of problems to be studied. A week was used in reviewing the past year's experiences of pupils' plans for education and careers and for re-examining ways and means of evaluating choice of problems. Also, the class reviewed and criticized the ideas they had previously gained regarding pupils' obligations and responsibilities related to the task of working out their problems. Likewise, as the need arose, pupils discussed and reached conclusions regarding ways of sharing the information gained and evaluating their work. Another week was consumed in pupils' planning lists of problems which they felt they needed to study during the semester and detailed plans for their first problem. The process demanded browsing in books, magazines, and newspapers, radio broadcasts, and conferences with parents and teachers. By the third week pupils had filed with their instructors "criteria sheets" justifying their choices and signifying estimates of the time their problems would take. Time estimates ranged from one to five weeks depending upon the nature of the problem, amount of reference materials available and ability of pupil. The instructor prepared for ready reference, alphabetized roll charts containing pupils' working plans for their problems and their time estimates. Later she made charts which grouped problems having a common subject and helped pupils plan their programs for their sharing periods. At first the great diversity of subjects to be dealt with baffled the instructor who wondered how she would ever be able to bring any sort of unity into the class-sharing period. The very first day of reports by pupils on their problems allayed her fears, because, pupil attention to reports and class discussions which followed were the best she had ever experienced. Pupils asked questions frequently and pointed out related angles of their own particular problem to the question of the hour. As time went on they saw and pointed out relations revealed to them from previous reports made in class as well as from their newspaper reading or radio listening that had been stimulated through their understanding of problems presented by their fellow-students. The idea that perhaps pupils integrate their experiences better in such a situation of diverse problems than they do in a course devised under the most logical organized plan any teacher can conceive was becoming more apparent to the instructor. An oral test on the subject of national conscription, prepared and administered to the class by two pupils revealed that pupils who had not studied, as their own individual project, problems related thereto, had gained so much information from class presentations and discussions that they were able to compete

favorably in the contest. One very poor student surpassed all of her classmates on the test.

The pupil-teacher planning for individual needs and interests necessitates anticipation of the pupil's entire social studies program for his high school career. In order to provide a well rounded plan for his work as is possible, areas of work sheets are kept up-to-date by him and charts showing fields that he should continue to explore are devised with him by the teacher. Effort is made to aid him in getting as full as possible a picture of the whole social studies field in the time his high school schedule will permit. In most cases four semesters of work are required; in some cases five or even six semesters are possible. In several cases, pupils who feel that their future educational plans demand rigid courses in chronological history have worked out their plans for such courses and have followed their plans through very well. A case in point is that of three boys whose future educational career required, they believed, entrance units to Annapolis. Arrangements were made for the boys to be placed in the same social studies class in order that the teacher might give them time together on their common problem. Fre-

quently they have contributed to the class well organized accounts of the historical development of mankind. They also aided pupils needing ancient historical background for their particular problems.

Is such a classroom procedure as has been described a revolution? No, rather it is evolution. Is it "Progressive Education?" We are making no such claims, but we sincerely hope pupils are progressing in the sense that they are growing and developing in their selection of problems to be studied and their understanding of their own and society's needs. Is this an experiment and are they "Guinea Pigs?" We do not consider such to be the case. We have no interest in conducting an educational experiment, but we are vitally interested in challenging girls and boys to become increasingly self-directive in a field that presents a life situation of personal and social problems which must be faced continuously by individuals from the cradle to the grave. Individualized teaching becomes an adventure for the teacher on a trail where pupils and teachers collaborate in the pursuit of commonly recognized goals. Learning, to be effective, must be motivated from within and must become a part of the experiences of daily living.

Geographical Interpretation of History

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Since some of the factors that influence history are so obvious, it is not strange that specialists, who have studied almost exclusively one or another of these factors, have developed cults of historical interpretation. They are not unlike religious or medical cults and while they have thrived for various reasons, their popularity has often been the result of their simplicity. If for example disease could be reduced to a universal cause or religion to a universal source, then a universal remedy in the one case and a universal authority in the other could be proclaimed. In point of time and persistence the religious interpretation of history has been the most influential. Whatever was strange or otherwise not easily accounted for could be ascribed to the will of God. This explanation was not only simple, but it had also a soul-satisfying finality about it that made it irreproachable from the basis of fact or theory, and it enabled people to go their several ways in peace and dismiss the entire problem from their minds.

During the past hundred years the economic interpretationist cult has experienced remarkable growth. It arose out of the growing reaction against the non-rational aspects of the older explanations of

history and it had the merit of being based upon an apparently disinterested examination of accurate facts and statistics. It had variety as well as simplicity. While no one economic cause was advocated as explaining all history, each historical event could be described to some particular economic cause. Thus the American Revolution could be reduced to a controversy over taxation, the formation of the American Constitution to the economic interests of its framers, the Civil War to the growth of manufacturing, and the World War to rival imperialisms in Europe, and in America to the desire for profits on the part of munitions makers. The growing complications of society caused partly by the advance of technology, and the devoutness amounting almost to a religious frenzy with which the economic interpreters proselytized their ideas, have given to this economic theory an influence in shaping world events that is astounding.

It would be interesting to follow the ideas of other historical cultists that have existed in the past or are just now experiencing the first blush of youthful vigor, but suffice it to say that it is in this setting that the geographical interpreters belong. Given certain

inescapable facts regarding the geography of the world, it has been relatively easy for geographical interpreters to provide reasonably simple explanations for historical events. Stated in its simplest form the geographical theory is that man is the product of his environment. History, it has been said, is nothing but "geography set in motion." That geography has been a constant factor in history, that man is always confronted with his environment, and that environment has been a profound influence upon his actions, no one would question, but the extremes of the geographical interpreters have long been discredited.

Among the many geographical factors in history the influence of natural watercourses would stand out very prominently. It may be possible, therefore, to take a single example, of a great river as an illustration of the importance as well as the limitations of geographical influences and at the same time illustrate the limitations of any single interpretation of history. For the purpose in mind the Hudson will serve as well as or better than any other American river.

With the single exception of southeastern New England, the entire Atlantic seaboard of North America was laced with gently flowing rivers that almost imperceptibly merged their waters with the sea and were navigable for considerable distances to ocean-going vessels. They invited exploration, profoundly influenced the character of early settlements, and linked the land with the water. But south of the St. Lawrence all of the westward-extending rivers of the Atlantic seaboard lost themselves in the Appalachian mountain barrier. Of the northward-extending rivers neither the Delaware nor the Connecticut had important tributaries that reached to the westward, while the great western branches of the Susquehanna met with the same fate that befell the other seaboard streams. Thus the *English* settlements from Florida to Canada, with the one exception noted, were provided with a magnificent abundance of watercourses none of which led to an easy passage of the mountain barrier.

This barrier of mountains extended for thirteen hundred miles and its passage was rendered additionally difficult by its dense forestation. To be sure it was not impassable, for the headwaters of many rivers, particularly in the southern area, threaded their ways through mountain gaps. But the longitudinal character of the valleys, the overlapping of mountain ranges, and the disposition of the gaps through each range were such that when one range had been passed another one appeared, and the settler or trader was confronted with a long journey before the next pass was reached. Thus for nearly 200 years after the first settlement at Jamestown the English settlers filled in the tidewater and piedmont,

fished and traded along the coast, and scarcely more than looked beyond the barrier.

This geographical explanation for the confinement of the English to the Atlantic slope of North America is excellent so far as it goes, and it would be as significant as it sounds if it were not for many other important facts. Among these the one that has been chosen for consideration relates to the Hudson River. The Hudson with its great Mohawk tributary provided the one great exception to what has been said, for it furnished a natural gateway through the barrier. When Henry Hudson sailed up the beautiful river that bears his name he found no serious obstacle to navigation and did not turn about until he was almost within sight of the present site of Albany. Not only was the Hudson navigable to Albany, but the Mohawk was navigable for almost a hundred miles beyond that and when the head of navigation had been reached the settler was not confronted with rugged mountain passes but with a broad plain which appeared to be almost level for a distance of 200 miles to the shores of Lake Erie. At no point on this broad passageway to the interior was the height above sea level more than 445 feet. Moreover if one did not wish to journey through the Great Lakes to the west or northwest, there were good trails from the Mohawk or the Genesee to the headwaters of the Allegheny which led to the Ohio and to the Mississippi. Long before the British had occupied New Netherland, enterprising Dutch traders had followed the Mohawk route to Oswego, thence along Lakes Ontario and Erie to Detroit and by way of Lake Huron and across Saginaw Bay to Mackinac. It was not geography, therefore, that kept the British here within the mountain barrier. The non-geographical factors that influenced events along the Hudson-Mohawk gateway were many and complex, and they can be mentioned here only in briefest outline. They involve the domestic situation in the Netherlands in the seventeenth century, the character of the Dutch and British colonial governments along the Hudson, international politics in Europe, the French empire in America, the Iroquois confederacy, and many purely fortuitous items. Perhaps the influence of the Dutch should be mentioned first.

Forced by Philip II to abandon the trade of Lisbon to northern Europe, the Dutch began to seek a way to the Orient and the colonial experiment of New Netherland was more or less the result of the chance of discovery which was incidental to the main objective of the Dutch. Their colonial experiment in America was not a success, for a colony could not be established without colonists. There was not great surplus population in Holland and no driving political, religious, or economic discontent to induce any considerable number of people to try their fortunes in a new land. The quasi-feudal patroonships that were

established along the Hudson did not attract colonists from other countries of Europe, while Indian wars, poor colonial administration, and the preoccupation of the Dutch at home contributed to the precariousness with which they held on to the great gateway to the west for half a century. When the Dutch province became an English ducal proprietary the situation was not greatly changed. The Duke of York hoped to receive financial remuneration from his colony and the result was that neither the land system nor the government was greatly improved. The colony's growth continued to be slow and when at last an effort was made to reach beyond Schenectady the French and Indian barrier was well ensconced along the pathway to the interior.

Aside from the Hudson-Mohawk route the other great natural entrances to the American continent were the St. Lawrence and the Mississippi Rivers. Although the French were slow in getting started, once they had installed themselves upon the rock of Quebec, and upon the Isle of Orleans, and had secured the Great Lakes, they had performed the most brilliant strategical move in the struggle for the continent. In spite of internal dissention and foreign wars the French maintained themselves athwart the Mohawk gateway for a century and a half, and when the last assault upon their domain began it was started by men who had triumphed over the mountain barriers of Virginia and Pennsylvania. Washington was sent by Virginia to warn the French army away from the Ohio Valley, and General Braddock landed his troops on the banks of the Potomac not the Hudson.

The struggle for the Mohawk gateway was not over, however, when the French were driven from the heart of America. Friendship with the Iroquois was a settled policy of the British government which looked with disfavor upon the rapid westward advance of white settlements. As far as the west was concerned the American Revolution was a struggle for self-determination of land, trading, and Indian policies far more than it was a contest over taxation and ocean commerce. The Iroquois allied themselves with the British, and the Mohawk valley was again the scene of bloody warfare. But this marked the end of a chapter, for the enraged frontier gathered its strength and in 1779 under the leadership of General Sullivan waged such relentless and ruthless war upon the Iroquois that their power was forever broken. Many of Sullivan's soldiers returned to settle along the Mohawk and the Genesee. In 1792 the Western Inland Lock Navigation Company was incorporated and undertook to make a canal joining

the Mohawk with Wood Creek which empties into Lake Oneida which in turn had an outlet into Lake Ontario by the Oswego River. Thus it took 200 years of effort before the great gateway to the west was open freely to the westward march of people. The pathway best designed by nature for the movement of the English colonists into the interior of the continent was, in fact, the last to be opened.

It would be interesting to follow the later history of the Hudson-Mohawk route for it is intimately connected with the development of America. The Erie Canal was opened in 1825, and a few years later the Welland Canal, which facilitated commerce between the Great Lakes and the St. Lawrence, was completed. The construction of these two waterways marked not only coöperation of man with nature and the merging of the two great eastern waterways to the continent into a common channel of communication, but what was more important they marked the beginning of a century of growing friendship and coöperation between the Canadian and the American peoples.

This friendship has not been without its stresses and strains. Economic and political nationalism and many incidental factors have often prevented the development or the continuance of wise international policies, but viewed from the vantage point of a century of history, progress has been steady. By the treaty of 1871, America gained the perpetual right to navigate the St. Lawrence, and the Boundary Waters Treaty of 1909 provided for free navigation to both nations of all boundary waters and all canals connecting boundary waters. A reciprocal trade treaty was ratified in 1935 and it is hoped that myopic statesmen will not prevent the building of the projected St. Lawrence waterway for ocean going ships, which will benefit both countries.

The Hudson River is a great highway of commerce and communication, and this is equally true of the St. Lawrence. Each has a purpose that cannot be fulfilled by the other. Perhaps the experiences of three centuries have taught the American and Canadian peoples to facilitate rather than to obstruct the use of these two great water courses by the further removal of trade barriers and the construction of connecting channels. If this could be done it might not be too much to hope that it would form an example for the development of the free commerce of the world. If that utopia should arrive watercourses would influence human affairs more profoundly than they have in the past and we might be justified in standing in reverence before geographical interpreters of history.

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Revised Historical Viewpoints

RALPH B. GUINNESS

Franklin K. Lane High School, Brooklyn, New York

THE LIBERAL PURITAN CLERGY

The Puritan clergy were not so bigoted and conservative as James Truslow Adams, Parrington, and others have described them. Nor was there any popular revolt against their rule.¹

The new voters enfranchised in 1691 were not anti-clerical. They twice voted for a return to the old charter. Their new General Court re-enacted the fundamental statutes of the old government and in 1701 gave the ministers a large voice in town affairs.

Increase and Cotton Mather approved the new charter which supposedly overthrew the theocracy. Religious conservatives controlling the House of Representatives were anxious to force Congregational ministers on Baptist and Quaker towns. The new electorate insisted for years that every politician assume the cloak of fundamentalism.

The clergy were more liberal than the people, for their sermons show praise of the principle of religious toleration. Their sermons and inventories of their libraries show that they read the works of Catholic authors. They corresponded with liberal Anglican bishops, sympathized with the German Pietist movement, and read the publications of the Deists. They liberalized the church against the opposition of the lay elders. Such a simple improvement as singing by note was denounced by laymen as "popery."

The clergy showed a liberal and progressive attitude in accepting the new scientific ideas on geology and astronomy. Increase Mather, when advised of a book by Spencer of Cambridge declaring comets to be due to natural causes, read it and then delivered a sermon announcing this view and repudiating a sermon of a year earlier when he had described them as portents of God's anger.

There is no evidence that the clergy instigated and supported the Salem witchcraft persecutions. On the contrary they privately and publicly addressed the judges declaring that, while guilty persons should be punished, this should be done only on evidence that would be accepted in ordinary civil and criminal cases. Finally, Increase Mather drew up the *Cases of Conscience*, had it signed by fourteen leading ministers, and presented it to Governor Phips, who then brought the hangings to an end. In later years the clergy continued to denounce the earlier persecutions, censuring the zeal of the populace which had sent

the Quakers to the gallows. For the next fifty years the clergy demanded the legislature to make restitution for the wrongs done the innocent.

Thus, there was no popular outcry against the clergy, who far from being bigots were more liberal than the mass of people of that period.

INDENTURED SERVITUDE AND LAND SPECULATION

While colonial land laws were liberal in their provision for free lands for indentured servants on redemption, other factors operated against this benevolence. This was particularly true of Maryland, as a study by Smith reveals.²

Until 1683, each ship captain, or contractor, who brought in settlers was granted fifty acres for each one. The captain, or contractor, would sell his rights to speculators, often officers of the government. For example, on November 2, 1674, Captain Samuel Gibbons, of the ship *Batchelor*, landed ninety servants and acquired the rights to 4,500 acres of land. On the same day for a valuable consideration he assigned his rights to Robert Ridgely, a government official and speculator. On November 6, the latter sold seventy-five rights to four different persons. This type of speculation soon disposed of the best lands.

In the ten years, 1670-1680, for which this study was made, approximately 500 servants were brought in each year, but in this time only 1,249 persons out of 5,000 presented their certificates of freedom to prove their rights. Of these, 869 assigned their rights immediately to others. In many instances one person assumed the rights of several servants. Government officials often went to remote parts of the province to buy up the freedom rights. Allowing for the death of some, only seventy per cent of the servants applied for their land. Only about four per cent of the servants took out warrants for their lands after proving their rights.

Smith declares this failure of servants to obtain lands was due to the system of land speculation in head and freedom rights by which the best lands were monopolized by the speculators. However, he also concludes that evidence, not specifically cited, shows many servants never took out warrants for land since some were lazy, irresponsible, and criminal.

¹ Clifford K. Shipton, "A Plea for Puritanism," *American Historical Review*, XL (April 1935), 460-467.

² Abbott E. Smith, "Indentured Servants and Land Speculation in Maryland," *American Historical Review*, XL (April 1935), 467-472.

History Textbooks and International Attitudes

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Do history textbooks affect the attitudes of people of other countries? Should studies be made of the extent to which our prejudices and enthusiasms are affected by the books we study in school? Do we want the truth in our textbooks? Who should write them: historians, teachers, publishers' employees, or others? Who should be responsible for the selection of textbooks in any given school: the superintendent, principals, a school board committee, classroom teachers, pupils, or some other person or persons? What steps if any should be taken toward evaluating the books we use? What should be the bases for decisions?¹

These are questions raised by observant teachers, conscious that the influence of the textbook has been underestimated and that any attempt to solve international problems and relieve international tensions must involve every instrument within reach of our intelligence.

"The world today is in an evil state and it faces greater evils," wrote H. G. Wells in 1938, "It is being torn to pieces by old ideas armed with new and frightful weapons. Many factors contribute to this tragedy, but the primary source of our troubles is the complete incompatibility between historical traditions and the new, more exacting conditions of life created for us by invention and discovery. The adjustment of history to reality has become a matter of extreme urgency. . . . The magnification of 'us' and 'ours' to the disadvantage of other peoples pervades nearly every history in the world."²

"If you look carefully at what is taught in the schools, you get a line on the more subtle influences which go to make up peculiar national attitudes"; "Diplomats today are constantly voicing prejudices which they acquired from textbooks they studied years ago," write other observers. The textbook exerts a direct and extensive influence upon the curriculum and upon teaching methods. It reflects and establishes standards. Someone has said that the only "Hall of Fame" worth mentioning is the elementary school textbook. What can be achieved through education used as propaganda has been proved as never before during the past ten years. It is the certainty of

aim in the totalitarian schools which is a challenge to education in the democracies. True, indoctrination should be anathema to us; it offends the spirit of free inquiry and discussion on which education in a democracy rests. But, as Kandel reminds us, our ideals cannot be acquired without instruction accompanied by an emotional faith and fervor, which have their outlet in a way of life.

In an attempt to analyze the attitudes of adolescent boys and girls toward the peoples of other nations, 300 unselected pupils in high school history classes were asked to fill in a simple questionnaire. They were from thirteen to eighteen years of age and were given no instructions except to answer these questions sincerely:

1. What is your feeling toward the people of the following countries: England, France, Germany, Russia, China, Japan? Is it friendliness, indifference or dislike?

2. What do you consider the most important reason for your feeling: family feeling, some teacher, some textbook, some other reason? The papers were not signed.

A total of 1832 judgments were expressed. Of these, 920 were put in the column headed: "Some other reason." Among these were "newspapers," "radio," "form of government," "sympathy," "a combination of reasons," "I have lived among them" (This comment explained in some cases a favorable attitude, in others, the opposite.). A considerable number said: "I don't know." Many pupils distinguished between the people and the government, expressing in some instances a friendly attitude toward the German people and the opposite toward their government. The greatest number of definite replies were put in the column headed "Family Feeling." A total of 523 judgments were ascribed to this cause. A number of pupils felt that their attitudes toward all the peoples listed were due to family influence. Next to the family, the most important cause for the attitudes expressed was the textbook, 207 judgments being ascribed to this cause and seventy-eight to the influence of a teacher. While these numbers are small, they seem to have some significance. For example, a friendly attitude toward the English people was attributed in only three instances to a teacher and in fourteen instances to a textbook. To-

¹ Gertrude Whipple, *Procedures Used in Selecting Textbooks* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1936).

² H. G. Wells, "The Poison Called History," *Nineteenth Century* (London, May 1938).

ward the French, a friendly attitude was attributed to a teacher in sixteen cases and to a textbook in eighteen cases. Four instances of indifference toward the English and fifteen toward the French were attributed to textbooks and none to a teacher. One case of dislike for the English and thirty-two for the French were expressed, with a proportion of teacher to textbook influence of two to twelve.

Toward the Germans, the general attitude (272 out of 315), was dislike with only ten expressing friendship; textbooks were credited with causing dislike in thirty-one cases, teachers in fourteen cases. Two cases of indifference and one of friendliness were attributed to textbooks.

The general feeling toward Soviet Russia was one of indifference, as expressed by 165 pupils, and dislike as expressed by ninety-six. A textbook is credited with causing indifference in twenty cases, friendliness in nine cases and dislike in seven cases. A teacher is said to have caused the indifference in eight cases and dislike in two cases. The textbook seems to have been most influential in the attitudes toward people of the oriental countries. Twenty-seven students stated that their friendliness toward the Chinese was caused by a textbook; fourteen felt that their indifference toward the Chinese was due to the same cause; and dislike was caused by textbooks

in four cases. The influence of a teacher accounted for the attitude of fifteen pupils (six of them friendly) toward the Chinese. Toward the Japanese, the textbook inspired friendliness in three cases, indifference in nine and dislike in eighteen. Teachers were credited with inspiring only indifference and dislike (eight instances) toward the Japanese.

Among the 920 judgments ascribed to "other causes" and "unknown" there must be a number in which the influence of the textbook, either directly or through a teacher has made itself felt. Considering the rather meager preparation of many history teachers and their dependence on textbooks, either the one used by their pupils or those studied in high school days themselves, the importance of textbooks is worthy of further study and careful consideration. Probably in no other country is as much dependence evident on textbooks as in the United States. This is especially true in history and geography classes and in no other classes are attitudes toward other peoples so apt to be built.

While the numbers concerned in this study of the causes of international attitudes are too small to make the results conclusive, there is reason to believe that the textbook, next to the home, is the most important factor in causing international attitudes in adolescent children.

Geographic Games and Tests

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SUGGESTIONS TO THE TEACHER

Beginning with this issue of *THE SOCIAL STUDIES* there appears the first of a series of geographic games which have been planned for teachers of geography, history, and the social studies in general.

Most of us will agree that too much of our "teaching" consists in a mere rehashing of the text. The typical geography recitation is a rehearsing of the facts of "location, size, resources, industries and trade" of this country and that, repeated day after day with monotonous regularity. The mental and spiritual atmosphere in such a classroom is not unlike that in a boarding house where corned beef and boiled potatoes are served all too regularly. The boarders, however, have one decided advantage—they can quit and go elsewhere!

The text, of course, is the teachers most valuable aid and it will furnish the main body of factual materials. But, like the beef and potatoes those basic materials may be served up in a variety of forms provided the teacher is a good "cook." It is hoped

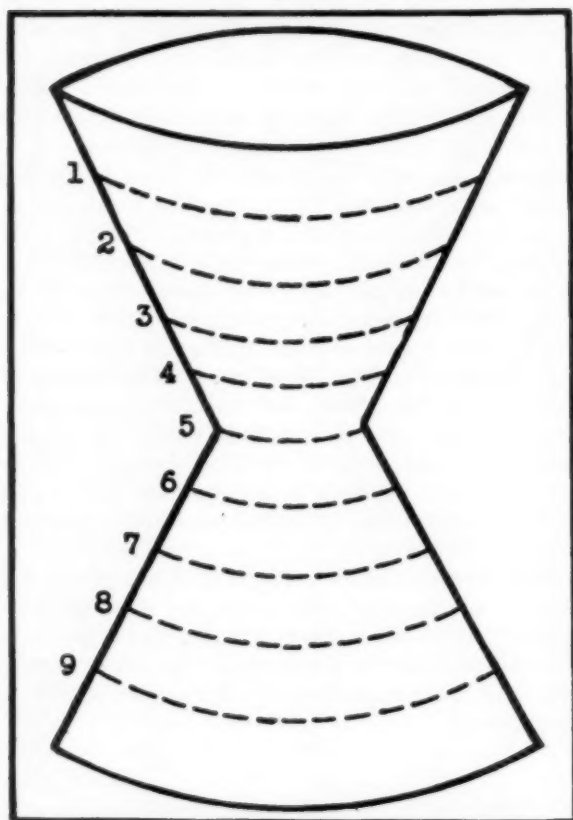
that these exercises may serve as some of the "seasoning" for the geographic menu.

In general, teachers will find the chief use of the games for drills, reviews and supplementary exercises. They may serve also as extra work for the better pupils and be used at times to stimulate flagging interest and promote thoughtful effort.

The difficulty of the games may be increased by omitting the names to be used as answers (see "The Hour-Glass of Leading States"), by putting a time limit on the completion, or by assigning them without time for study. There will be about 100 games in the whole series so that there is provided a wide range from which selection to fit particular needs may be made. Eventually all will be published in sheet form.

A plan found very successful is for the teacher to keep all the exercises and then select at opportune times those wanted. These can be passed out—and if it seems desirable, the pupils can put them into loose-leaf notebooks when completed. Any suggestions for improvement will be gratefully received.

G 21. A. THE HOUR-GLASS OF LEADING STATES



Print a state name in on each line, one letter for each dash. Each state named is the leading state in the production of one of the articles named below:

1. Tobacco
2. Silverware, jewelry
3. Iron ore
4. Grapefruit
5. Cotton
6. Copper
7. Cheese
8. Rye
9. Boots and shoes

Texas, North Dakota, Minnesota, Arizona, North Carolina, Florida, Massachusetts, Wisconsin, Rhode Island.

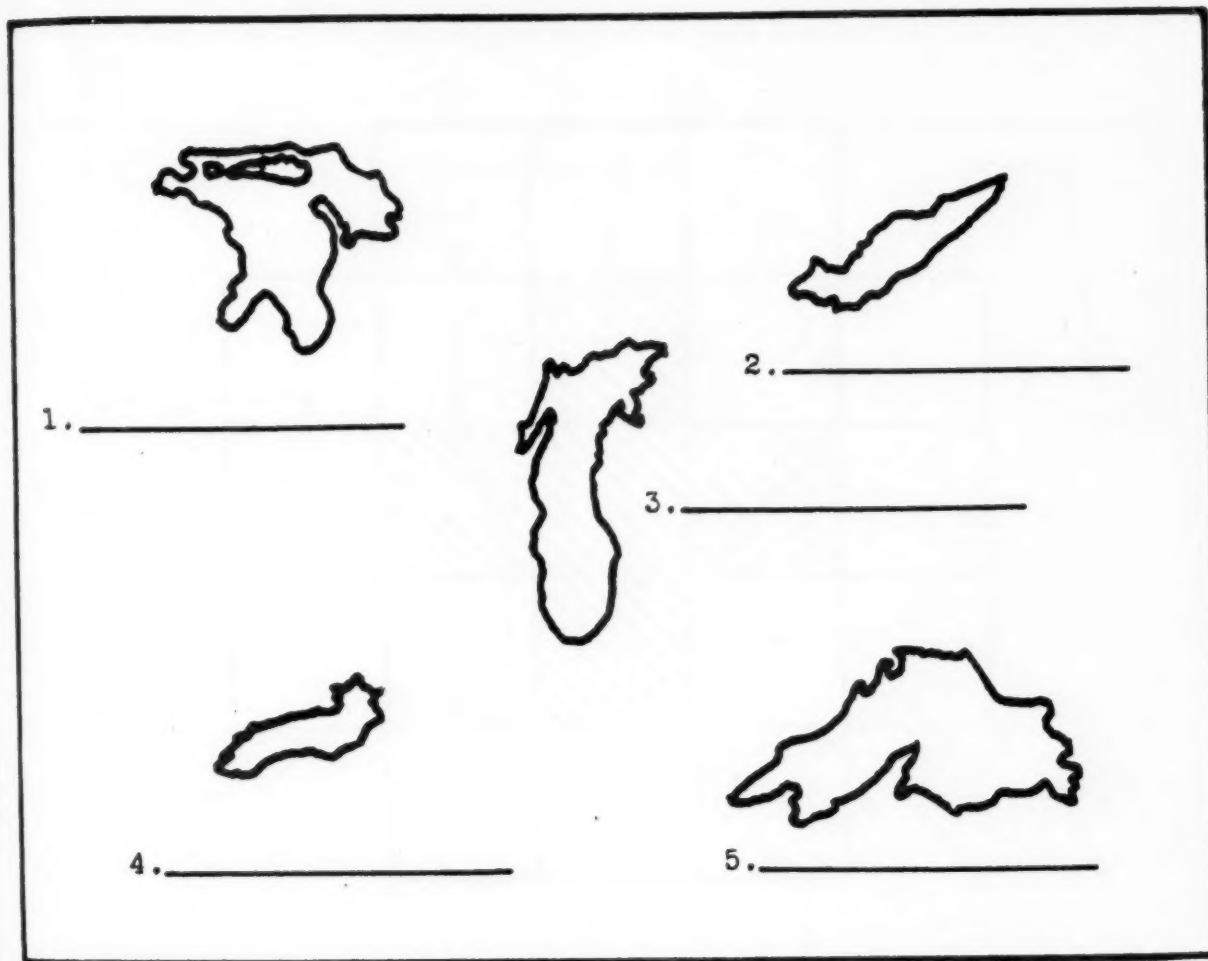
B. SOME OF THE LANDS WE OWN

In each of these sentences is the name of an American territorial possession—the letters being in their correct order. Underline the names. The list is given below:

1. The book I bought is called "Wake Up and Live."
2. About midway across the Pacific is a small island group.
3. His signal, "Ask a pilot to guide us," was heard by all.
4. The words "ha-wa," I informed her, were native expressions.
5. A Panama can always keep one's head rather cool.
6. An American, Sam Oaks, was the first volunteer.
7. The loss of his kingdom made Philip pine slowly away.
8. The paper spoke of "a cargo of guamo," but they meant "guano."
9. These trees are virgin. Is land so cheap it has never been cleared?
10. The Spanish name "Puerto Rico" means "rich port."

Virgin Islands, Hawaii, Philippines, Alaska, Wake, Guam, American Samoa, Panama Canal, Puerto Rico, Midway.

G 22. THE GREAT LAKES AND THEIR CONNECTING WATERS



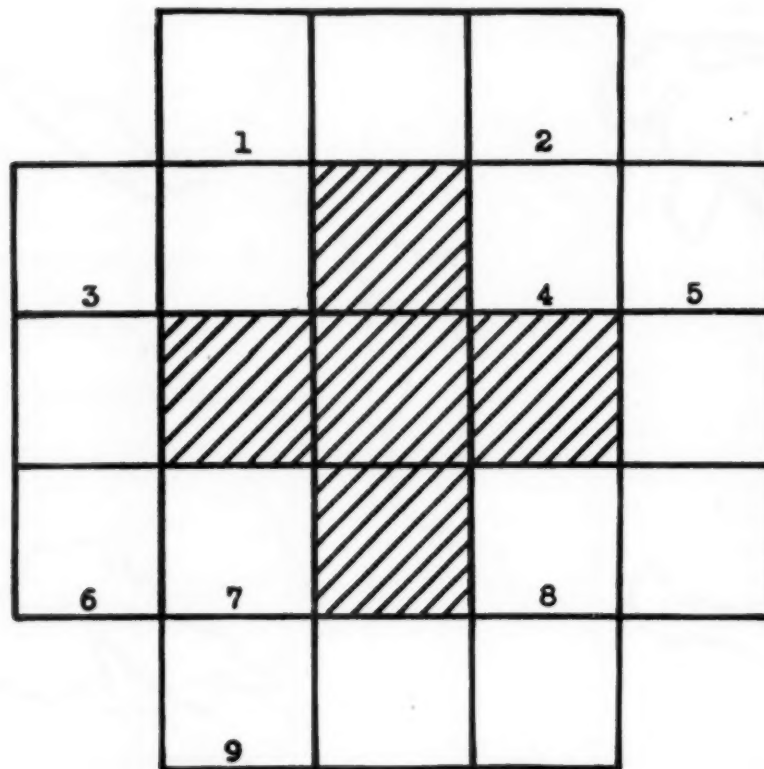
Put in the names of the Great Lakes shown above.

List the waters join the water bodies named below to each other:

1. Superior-Huron _____
2. Michigan-Huron _____
3. Huron-Erie _____
4. Erie-Ontario _____
5. Ontario-Atlantic Ocean _____
6. Erie-Atlantic Ocean _____
7. Michigan-Gulf of Mexico _____

G 23. OUR STATES AND THEIR EMPIRE ANCESTOR

A CROSS-WORD PUZZLE OF ABBREVIATIONS*



HORIZONTAL

1. Our leading winter wheat state.
3. The Empire State; possessor or our leading port.
4. A Mississippi Valley state noted for its mules.
6. The empire to which the thirteen colonies originally belonged.
8. The Pine Tree State; the easternmost of all the states.
9. The Hoosier State; one of the corn-belt states.

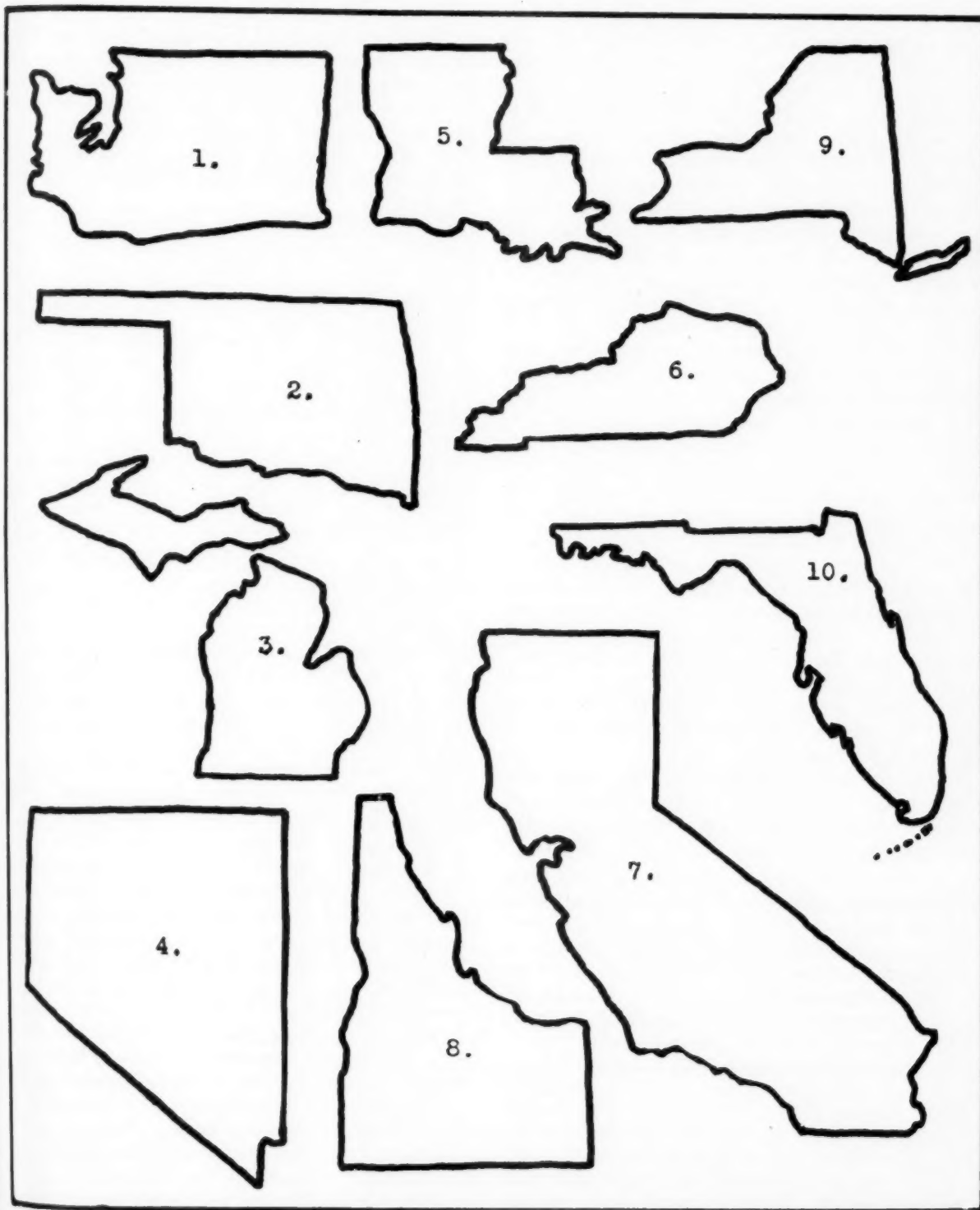
VERTICAL

1. The Blue Grass State; possessor of the Mammoth Cave.
2. Named after Mexico.
3. A middle western state noted for grain.
5. A northwest state crossed by a great salmon stream.
7. Our smallest state.
8. A state noted for its oysters; also the home of the U. S. naval academy.

* Modified from original by permission of A. K. Lobeck.

G 24. HOW WELL DO YOU REMEMBER THE UNITED STATES MAP?

Below are outline maps of ten of the states of the United States. Print in the appropriate names, using abbreviations.



The City: A Social Studies Class

FRANK MEYER

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A social studies class in which the local city and its institutions provide the subject matter is both valuable and interesting. For the past two years a semester course in "Our City" has been offered in the eighth grade of a junior high school in a city of 8,800 inhabitants. The class had to follow no prescribed course of study, so built its own as it proceeded. The course centered around class excursions and committee reports on many aspects of city life. The class studied the city, its geography, history, government, industries, public services, private enterprises, and its social institutions. This was not a community survey as such; it was a study of local institutions as they existed and as could be done by eighth graders. The class realized that this city does not exist in a vacuum but that it is a small part of a greater whole. Consequently, much use was made of books, magazines, and pamphlets in connection with the local subject being examined. For instance, when the local post office was studied by a committee it was necessary to gather much information on the whole post office system.

The class meets for one hour each day. In general the week's schedule is as follows: Friday, a class excursion; Monday, discussion of the excursion and preparation of a written report on it by each student; Tuesday and Wednesday, students work in committees studying special subjects; Thursday, reports of committees and a test on these reports and the last class excursion. This schedule may be altered at any time if the need arises.

Friday is usually the day for class excursions. About fifteen of these are taken during the semester. The following is a list of the places visited by the whole class:

Circuit Court	Municipal Light Plant
Newspaper Office	Sewage Disposal Plant
City Hall	County Jail
Telephone Office	Police Department
Fire Department	Library
Water Filtration Plant	Leather Manufacturing Plant
CCC Camp	Piano Factory

A novelty manufacturing concern

About a week before the excursion one student is delegated to make an appointment for the class. These appointments are made early and courteously. A request for an opportunity to visit a place has never been denied. Those in charge seem pleased to grant the request and feel flattered to be able to

explain their business. Guides who prove very helpful are always provided for the class. Students also prove coöperative, asking questions and taking notes. To most of them a visit to each place is a novel experience; they gain an entirely new conception of their city's institutions. A letter of appreciation is always sent to the person who arranged for receiving the class.

On Monday the class has an opportunity to raise questions about the place visited and to offer comments which may be helpful to others in understanding the institution. This discussion precedes the writing of a report on the visit by each student. The report is based on what the pupil saw, the notes he took on what the guide said, and the class discussion. The report is expected to be a well written paper. If the content or English is unsatisfactory the student is required to rewrite the report. After doing this on two or three occasions he hands in a good paper the first time. The report is required to encourage the student to be more observing, to listen attentively to the guide, and in all, to make the excursion a business proposition rather than a mere pleasure trip.

Tuesday and Wednesday are reserved for study of special city institutions by committees of two or three students. There is posted on the bulletin board a list of fifty-eight topics for committee reports. Any two or three students who feel that they would like to coöperate in studying one of these in detail sign their names after the topic. They are then to gather all the information they can on the topic and to write a complete report on their findings. Some of these topics are:

Factories	Fishing	Red Cross
Railroads	Banks	Transportation
CCC	Churches	City Hall
Post Office	Streets and Sewers	History
Coast	Water Supply	National Guard
Guard	Sewage Disposal	Sale of Liquor
WPA	Light Plant	Telephone Company
Geography	Recreation	Trucking
County	Community	Gas Plant
Roads	Chest	Chamber of Commerce
Sheriff	Court House	Farming
Hospital	Public Schools	Restaurants
Theaters	Newspaper	Hotel
Police	Parks	
Library	Housing	
Fire Department	Women's Club	

Upon deciding on a topic the committee reads everything it can find on that subject. As it does this it makes a list of questions to be answered relative to the local institution. This forms an outline for gathering information concerning the local situation. When all this has been completed the members of the committee are ready for an interview. About a week is spent at the first of the semester considering the proper method of making an appointment and an interview. Much practice is done in class. So when the time comes for the real thing most of the students can do it well. This is essential if the system is to succeed.

With the list of questions to guide them the students make their interviews. As one asks the questions the other takes notes on what is said. They see as many persons associated with the local institution as possible. Interviews are usually made during the regular class period on Tuesday or Wednesday. Occasionally they have to be made after school or on Saturday.

Besides interviewing and reading to gather information for questions and reports, Tuesday and Wednesday are spent in writing letters in search for further information. Students enjoy receiving mail at school; the instructor finds here an excellent device for teaching letter writing. Some time during these days is spent in preparing the oral reports to be given Thursday.

After the committee has accumulated all its information it has the responsibility of formulating a final, written report. Consultations are held with the teacher to receive suggestions. An outline and a first draft of the report are submitted to the teacher before the final report is written in ink and filed for future reference. This is a committee project and one of the first lessons the students have to learn is the meaning of division of responsibility and of labor.

It will be observed that the class procedure on Tuesday and Wednesday is informal. All students are working in committees. One group may be reading in the library, another studying in the classroom, a third preparing for an interview. Others are preparing an oral or written report, writing a letter, or they may be out of school making an interview. The teacher is always in conference with some who need assistance or who are submitting a paper for approval.

Thursday's class hour opens with oral committee reports to the entire class. Those who have made interviews explain their experiences to the class. This is a time for sharing. A committee studying the "Hospital," for example, explains everything it has found out about hospitals, but especially emphasizes the local institution. After presenting their formal report the members of the committee are questioned

by the class. At times the questioning is severe, especially if the report has not been too well done. Any questions which cannot be answered by the committee must be noted and the answers produced the following week.

The last part of the hour is devoted to a short test and an explanation of the excursion to be taken the next day. The test is the objective type with the questions read by the teacher and answers of one or a few words immediately written by the students. The test covers the reports just given and the excursion of the previous week. It is corrected at once by the class. The explanation of the coming excursion includes a description of the place to be visited, a list of things that should be noted, and a list of questions which should be answered by the visit.

The class is organized with a chairman and secretary. The chairman's main duty is to preside at the Thursday meeting. The secretary keeps the class roll and does other clerical work.

Such a class studying the local community and its institutions provides for much direct and concomitant learning. It brings the subject matter of the course very close to the children. It is around and about them everyday. It is real and tangible. How often class material is dry and uninteresting because it is long past and far distant. Junior high students should know the history and geography of their own city, its governmental and economic institutions. They should be better acquainted with their schools, stores, factories, banks, city hall, library, and other institutions of their city.

To know how to make an interview is valuable. With training and experience these boys and girls learn how to do this. Two boys who studied "Factories" interviewed the manager of each of twenty-three in the city. At the conclusion of their interview with one of these men he said, "If you boys want a job sometime, come out here and see me." This might mean little except that these boys had learned how to make a favorable impression at an interview.

The preparation of a written or an oral report, the presentation of the report before a critical audience, writing letters, working in committees, are all profitable educational experiences. They develop those qualities of coöperation and tolerance which are essential in democratic life today.

This class, established as an experiment in curriculum revision, has proved its worth. To work successfully, however, the class enrollment should be limited to twenty-five. It should not be a "snap course" even though considerable freedom is permitted. The teacher will require tireless patience at times and will need to exercise careful guidance always.

A Psychological Approach to World History

ANASTASIA FURMAN

Plymouth High School, Plymouth, Wisconsin

World history was the stepchild in our school when I took over the class, an elective open to sophomores, juniors, and seniors three years ago. "No one else wants to teach it," the superintendent warned me when I remarked that I was happy to have the course as a variation to my English program.

"No one wants to study any more history than he has to in order to enter college," the members of that first class hastened to assure me. "And we hate learning dates that are gone two minutes after exams." I chided them gently saying that their own birthdays were not the only important dates in the calendar of the world. I compared history of the human race to memory in the individual. Then I plunged them into the "Cradle of Civilization" unit. It was I, not they, who struggled. The class was not psychologically prepared for history of a remote period. I decided to back up, do an about face, and make a fresh start.

The idea had its origin in a student's chance remark that he wished he might study living history. "Bring magazines containing some article about the present international upheaval. Be prepared to present the views of one article," I directed. They beamed. No books!

But it happened that the Versailles treaty was mentioned in class the next day. "No one knows anything about it?" I questioned, for there were no volunteers to explain. "Then for tomorrow's discussion find out about its provisions and the problems it attempted to settle. Take notes from any book in the library and indicate in your notebooks the exact source of your information." That led them naturally to the World War, and that, in turn, to the Franco-Prussian War. Before we knew it the first six weeks were gone. The protests of the first weeks were forgotten and the class was diligently pushing back into the past. The reversal of the usual chronological order amused them. The tie-up of the past with the present kept them scurrying for information. To such questions as "But why do Germany and France both feel that they have a right to the Alsace-Lorraine territory?" I answer, "You must be on the watch for an explanation when we study Charlemagne and the division of his kingdom by his heirs." And when I saw that student make a note in his book, I knew that he would be prepared for the period of Charlemagne when we reached it.

We decided to set aside each Thursday as "Time"

period. Magazines that we used for material were: *Scholastic*, *American Observer*, *Time*, *Christian Science Monitor*, *Manchester Guardian*, and the *New Republic*. The objective tests supplied by several of these magazines were used frequently.

There were a few who worried: "What about memorizing dates?" In answer I presented them with the following stream-lined outline of work to be covered during the year:

- I. Roots of modern civilization in:
 - Industrial Revolution—Watt—Steam Engine (Used to run a spinning machine in 1785)
 - Nationalism—Elizabeth of England (d. 1603)
 - Reformation—Luther (ninety-five theses 1517)
- II. Renaissance—Leonardo da Vinci (d. 1519)
- III. Middle Ages—Supremacy of Catholicism
Charlemagne (Crowned 800)
- IV. Roman Era
 - End of Empire (5th cen.)
 - Birth of Jesus in Bethlehem
 - Beginning of Roman Empire—Caesar Augustus (43 B.C.)
 - Founding of Republic (Traditional date 509 B.C.)
- V. Grecian Era
 - Alexander the Great (d. 322 B.C.)
 - Pericles (d. 429 B.C.)
 - Homer (9th cen. B.C.)

I required that only the dates in this outline be memorized; they served as a sort of road map for our journey back in time. I explained that any choice of dates to indicate a development in civilization was arbitrary, and as such, was as much subject to difference of opinion, depending on the standards of judgment, as, for instance, was the assignment of a specific date to indicate the individual's passage from childhood to adulthood. I added that I hoped the reasons for my selection of these key events and dates would be evident as the course progressed. They were. That simple outline brought order to the chaos of facts in the world history books we used. And not only did the students keep their sense of direction better when their task was simplified, but they also acquired an appreciation of historical perspective that gave them a sense of the present related to a past.

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ILLUSTRATED SECTION

VOLUME XXXII, NUMBER 6

THE SOCIAL STUDIES

OCTOBER, 1941

Edited by DANIEL C. KNOWLTON
New York University

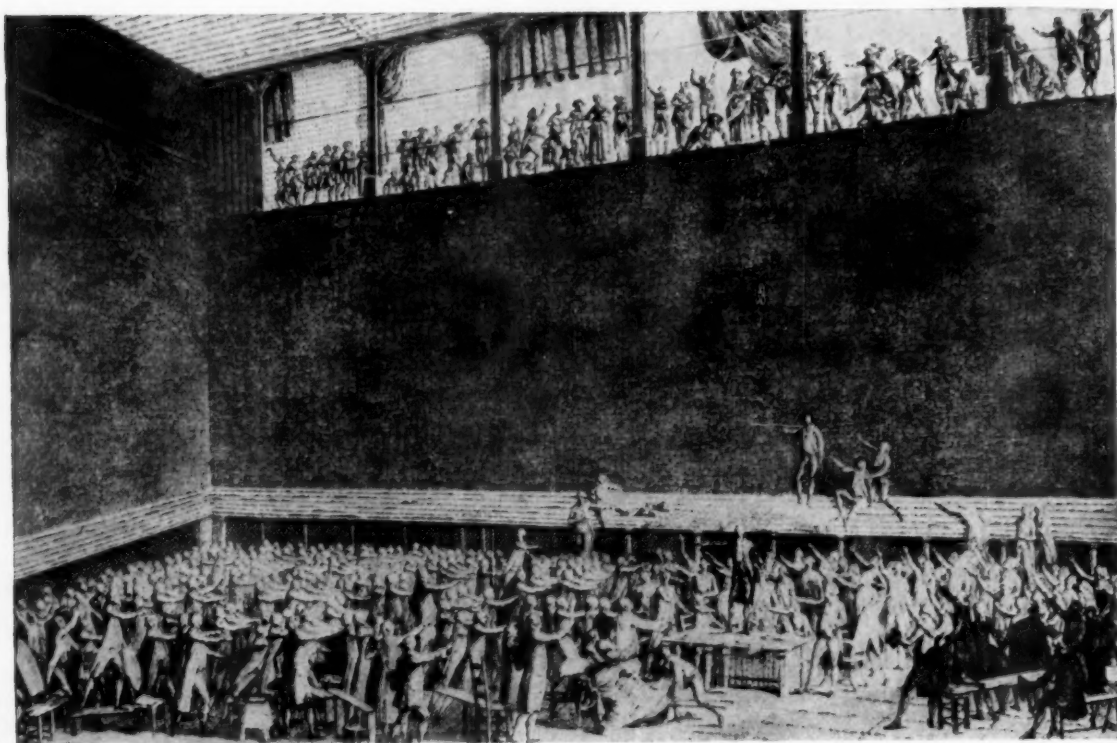
THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

THE PEASANT: a contemporary cartoon portraying the condition of the peasant. The words under the cock may be translated, "The morning reveille in the country." Along the path is a general description of the picture "characteristics of the peasant and his animals." The latter are identified beginning with those in the foreground as the hen, "Her days are numbered," the pig, "Despised but necessary," the cow, "Through him man eats and drinks," the bees, "Every-one enjoys their labor." On the hut is written, "The goal of the farmer is to pay taxes." One of the figures at the door is labelled "tax collector." Underneath the cartoon were the following lines:

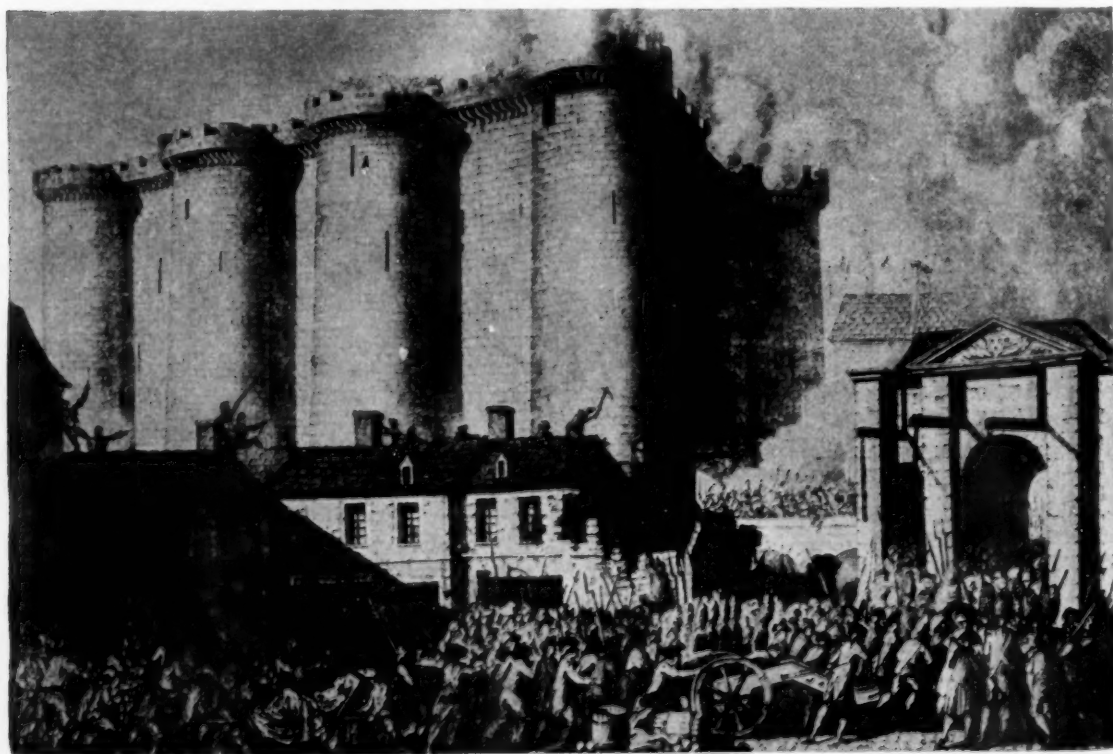
*"Daily in the country
In cold and in heat
The peasant may be seen toiling
Year in and year out
To obtain by his labor
The wherewithal to pay the collector."*



THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

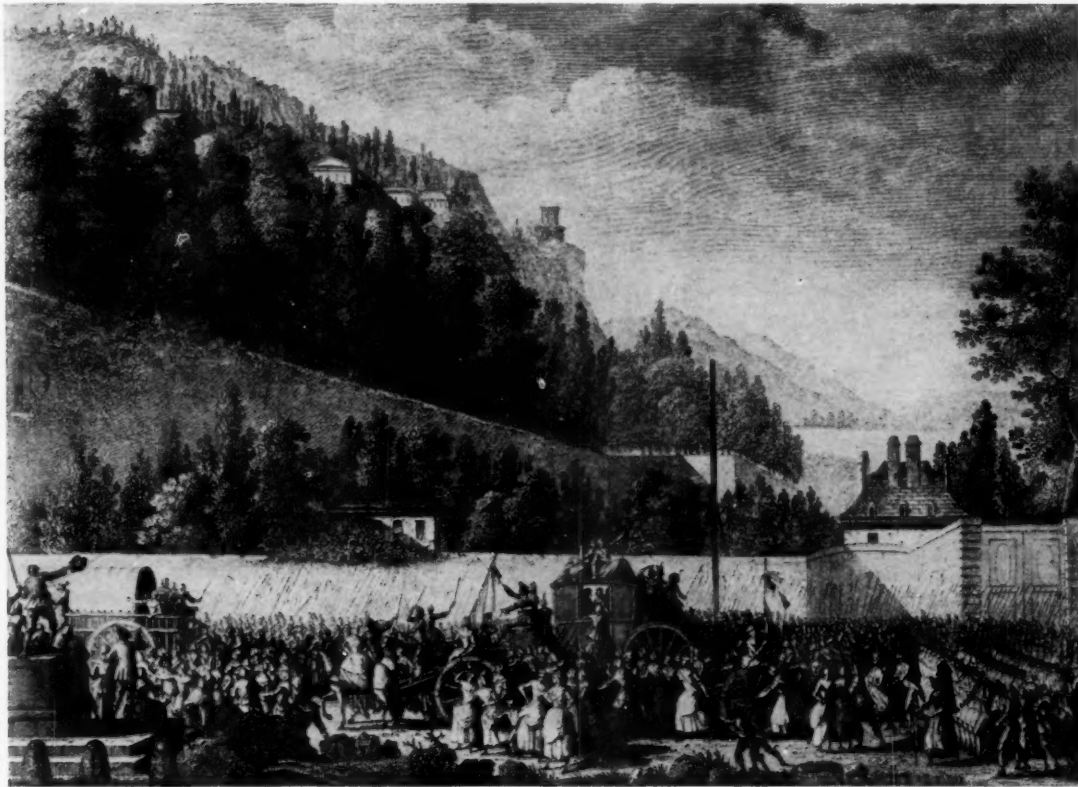


The Tennis Court Oath, June 20, 1789, from a contemporary engraving. Compare with David's well-known painting.



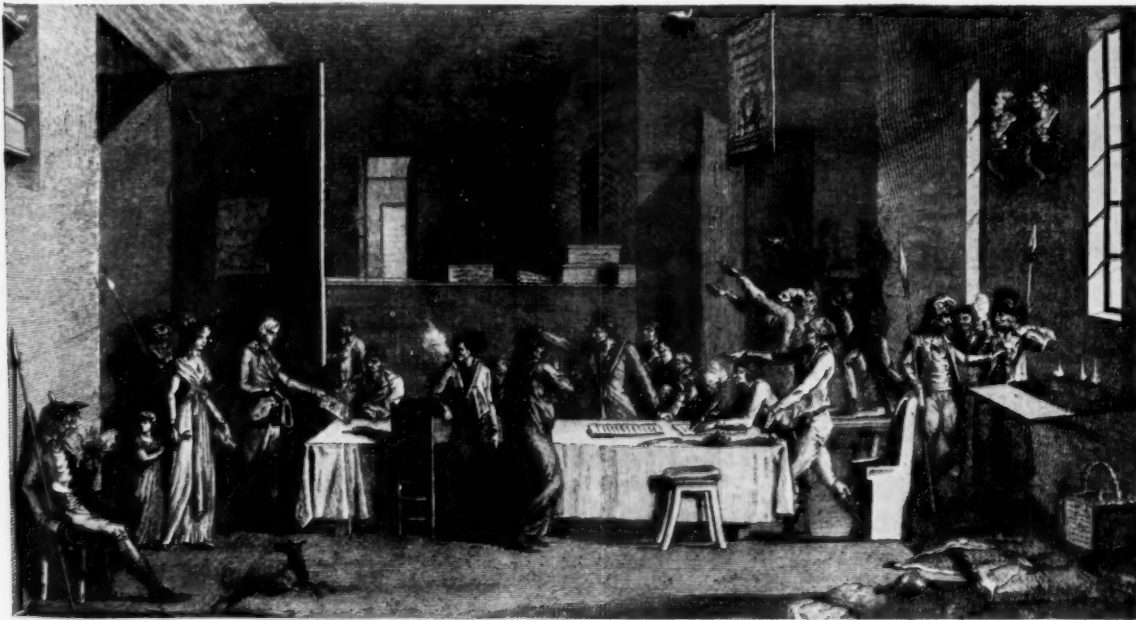
The Fall of the Bastille, July 14, 1789, from a contemporary engraving by Duplessis-Bertaux. The Bastille with its eight mighty towers and its walls ten feet in thickness dated from the fourteenth century and was located on the eastern edge of the city in the Faubourg of St. Antoine.

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION



Courtesy, New York Public Library

The March of the Women, October 5, 1789, from a contemporary engraving. In accordance with plans made weeks before by the demagogues, thousands of women under the command of Maillard streamed out to Versailles. "Lack of bread was the pretext and not the true cause of this uprising" was the comment of the Venetian ambassador.

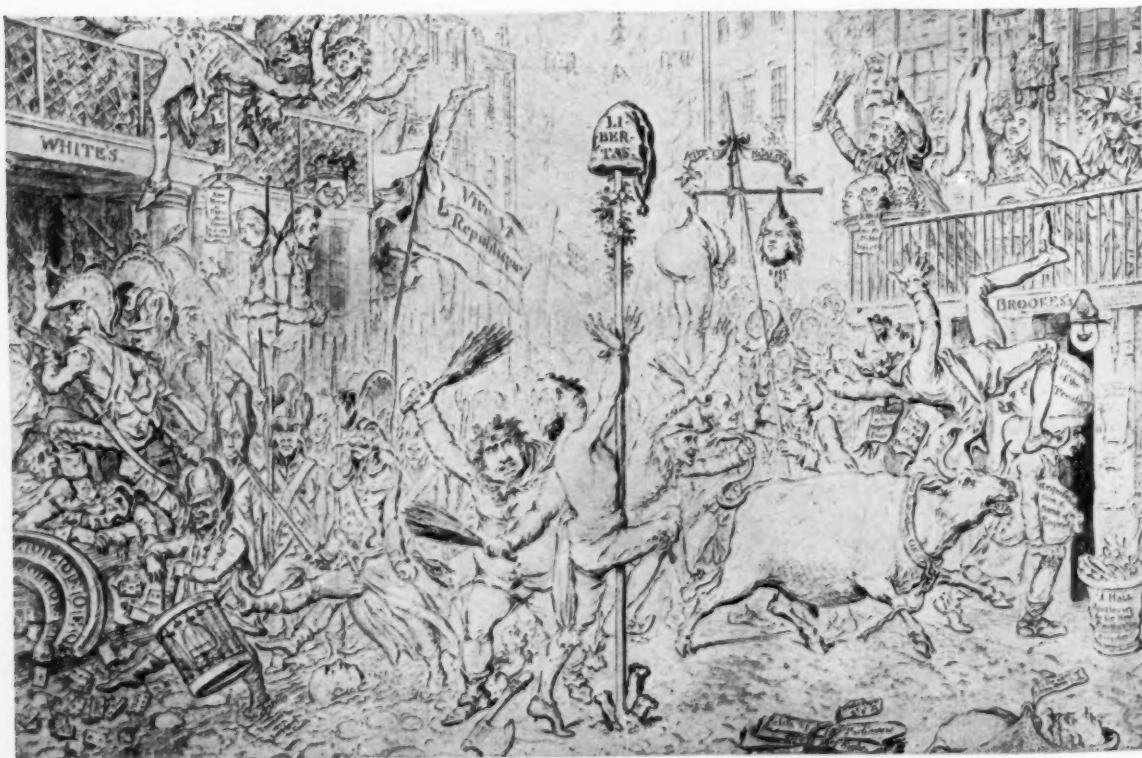


A Revolutionary Committee at Work. Voluntary in origin, these were formed by professional agitators and sincere patriots to keep an eye on local enemies of the Revolution. By a law March 21, 1793, they were ordered formed in every commune and in every section of large towns and entrusted with the pursuit of "suspects."

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION



The English cartoonist, James Gillray, mirrors in this cartoon the attitude of his countrymen toward the Revolution, portraying the treatment likely to be accorded to the English House of Commons.



In this cartoon also by Gillray, "Promised Horrors of a French Invasion," the invading horde marches through the heart of London past two famous clubs, White's and Brooke's.

Student Life in the Medieval Universities

ELLEN PERRY PRIDE

Bolton High School, Alexandria, Louisiana

The students of the Middle Ages left no journals and published no newspapers to tell us of their daily life, but in the letter-writing manuals, the sermons of the preachers, the college and university statutes, the dialogue books, the Goliardic poetry, and the court records of those days we find many references that give us a fairly good idea of how they spent their time. Much of the story these tell is of the conditions that always obtain whenever and wherever a crowd of young people are gathered together with the restraining influence of home suddenly removed. It is the same today, and many of the medieval college statutes find a counterpart in contemporary ones. Girls in boarding schools are still being campused for "visiting the kitchen." The scholars at Lérída were forbidden to go to classes on horseback, and student-owned automobiles are a big social and traffic problem for university authorities today. "No radios after ten o'clock," our rules say, while all over Europe the medieval student was forbidden to possess musical instruments as "disturbing the peace essential for learning."

Add to this reservation the fact that the medieval scholar was a child of his time, which was ruder, more lawless, and poorer than ours, and we realize that the stories of his excesses and hardships are often only a reflection of general conditions around him. Whether we view the records, however, as a mirror of the universal "college man" or as a sidelight on the Middle Ages or as a revelation of the unique conditions under which the earlier scholar worked, it is interesting to try to get a picture of his life, both as it was like ours and as it differed.

A would-be student coming to one of the large universities would probably find it hard to get a place to stay in the already over-crowded town, and he was sure to find his money did not go as far as he thought it would. But with luck he might be able to write his parents: "We occupy a good and comely dwelling, next door but one to the schools and market place, so that we can go to school every day without wetting our feet. We have also good companions in the house with us, well advanced in their studies and of excellent habits."¹

The first few days he spent listening in to several masters' lectures, because once having chosen his professors he could not drop a class. The schools were very much against changing around, and Rob-

ert de Courçon's Statute of 1215 ordered the Paris scholar to attach himself to a master who should not only teach him but have jurisdiction over him in minor matters as well. At Lérída he could not change after attending a teacher's lectures eight days. But the problem of the unattached scholar, or "martinet," continued to worry authorities as late as the fifteenth century, especially after the privileges pertaining to the universities made even nominal membership so attractive.

When his presence became known around the school, he soon found out what it meant to be a freshman, for hazing in the Middle Ages was a fine art—almost a ritual, officially recognized and sometimes participated in by the masters, although the universities did try to curb its excesses. The freshman was a *bajan*, from *bec jaune*, meaning "yellow beak." In Holland he was actually the "green one." Everywhere he had to go through an elaborate ceremony to fit him to associate with the "élite." This rite of the "jocund event" reached a picturesque high in Germany, where the *bajan* was treated as a wild, horned animal who had to be tamed. His tormentors, armed with planes, augers, saws, and pincers, marched on him and went through the motions of removing his imaginary tusks and claws. The initiate had to undergo humiliating taunts about his depravity; his family was commiserated on its hard luck and his presence in the university deplored. Finally when his learned seniors decided he had had enough, they assessed a feast as his penance. This last might be the greatest hardship of all, but there was no way of getting out of it except by proving abject poverty. By the fifteenth century these ceremonies were usually forbidden, and instead, the newcomer was entrusted to the care of discreet seniors who were to instruct and watch over him and, if need be, report his misdeeds to the authorities. As late as 1500, however, Martin Luther defended the German rite as teaching a moral lesson.²

The average, reasonably studious scholar, especially after the college statutes established a regular regimen, rose very early in the morning and attended mass in his own chapel, though the preachers complained that many were remiss in this duty. He then went to lectures until ten or noon, varying at different times and places, after which he ate his dinner. Lists of student meals show that the food, though

¹ C. H. Haskins, *The Renaissance of the Twelfth Century* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1927), p. 144.

² R. S. Rait, *Life in the Medieval Universities* (Cambridge: The University Press, 1912), pp. 109-123.

meager by modern standards, seems to have been above the average for the lower classes at the time. Of course the student complained about it; he does yet and undoubtedly did have more cause for complaint then than now. After dinner he was supposed to study or attend another lecture known as the "extraordinary," or if already a master, to teach until about five, when he would eat a frugal supper. Talking was usually forbidden at meals taken in the halls and always selections from the Bible or books of martyrology were read aloud. The office of "Bible Clerk" at Oxford was not formally abolished until 1923.

In the evening the scholar might study, discuss problems with a master, or walk around and talk to his fellow-students. He usually went to bed early, especially in winter, because candles were expensive and as one writer said, they had "no hearth nor stove in order to warm their feet."³ Frequent regulations guarded against the students carrying off wood from the common pile to their rooms, while one from Toulouse in the fifteenth century made it clear that, while the authorities permitted one to seek aid in the kitchen if ill, he was not to make that an excuse for going there "to warm himself."⁴

The universities' attitude toward recreation was consistent with the ascetic ideal of the Middle Ages, and the example of the mendicant colleges in their midst is evident in the rigorous codes of conduct they drew up to try to counteract the influence of the far from salutary town life. Some of their provisions were sensible; others display a narrow-minded restriction of the natural activities of youth. The student was understandably forbidden to keep animals in his rooms, but even so innocent an amusement as playing ball was frowned upon. Games of dice and chess, which often ended in a fight, were prohibited, though exceptions might be made on holidays or to amuse a sick friend. Gambling of any kind was subject to severe penalties—a natural rule if de Sorbon was right when he said: "He is much more familiar with the text of the dice, which he recognizes at once, no matter how rapidly they are thrown, than with the text of the old logic."⁵ Theaters and taverns were outside the pale, though judging from the record, this seems to have been little enforced. Street-dancing and masked processions were forbidden, probably not because of inherent evil but because of consequent indiscretions that might involve the students with the townspeople.⁶

³ *Ibid.*, pp. 87-88; Hastings Rashdall, *The Universities of Europe in the Middle Ages*, ed. by F. M. Powicke and A. B. Emden, 3 volumes (Oxford, The Clarendon Press, 1936), II, 341-342.

⁴ *Ibid.*, III, 415.

⁵ C. H. Haskins, *Studies in Medieval Culture* (Oxford, The Clarendon Press, 1929), p. 58.

⁶ R. S. Rait, *Life in the Medieval Universities*, pp. 33-34; 59-70; 94-108; Hastings Rashdall, *The Universities of Europe in the Middle Ages*, III, 420-426.

The legislation even included such minute regulations as the prohibition of "the very vile and horrid sport of shaving beards which is a customary practise on the eve of the Inception of Masters." The monastic influence is shown in the silence and Bible-reading required in halls and in the disapproval of walking abroad without an honest companion." That dancing in the college chapel had to be forbidden in Oxford and excommunication threatened for youths playing dice on the altars of Notre Dame is a strange commentary on an age that usually regarded sacred places with so much reverence.

Offenses by students, from being late to meals to murder, were punishable by fines, imprisonment, or expulsion. One variation of the fine was known as "sconcing," in which the amercement was in the form of so many pints of wine to be drunk by the culprit's fellow-college members. It is a curious fact that the student's punishment frequently seemed little in keeping with the crime, and that his more serious offenses against society were visited with remarkably light sentences.

On the positive side, the best thing the Oxford legislators could think of for the amusement of the inmates of their halls was an occasional compulsory excursion into the country "for the recreation, convenience, and honor of the community." In the later period there was some attempt to promote supervised gatherings in the common hall of the colleges. A statute of Louvain (1476) provided: "After supper let the tutor introduce honest sport for a half hour and light and pleasant disputation for another half hour and then send them to sleep. And if the day is not legible, except Sundays, after dinner let a more sociable disputation be held in someone's charge and other exercises according to the direction and discretion of the tutors."⁷ Near the end of the fifteenth century we hear of comedies being acted in the colleges.

There is no denying that by any standards the medieval scholars were inclined to rudeness and violence. They were constantly ordered not to sling stones, throw water on the passers-by, or carry arms, and frequent assessments by the nations in assembly were "for broken windows." It was necessary to forbid beating up the watch, interfering with the hangman, and disturbing the inception banquets. "They were wont," writes a monk of the twelfth century, "to roam about the world and visit all its cities, till much learning makes them mad; for in Paris they seek liberal arts, in Orleans classics, at Salerno medicine, at Toledo magic, but nowhere manners and morals."⁸ Sorbon denounced the clerk's conduct from the pulpit because "he runs all night, fully armed, through the streets of the capital, breaks open house

⁷ *Ibid.*, II, 341-342.

⁸ C. H. Haskins, *The Rise of the Universities* (New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1923), p. 112.

doors to commit outrages, and fills the tribunals with the noise of his escapades."⁹

Speaking of their reputation as prodigious fighters, Philip Augustus said: "They are hardier than knights; knights covered with their armor hesitate to engage in battle. These clerics who have neither hauberk nor helmet but a tonsured head playfully fall upon one another with daggers: decidedly foolish of them and very dangerous."¹⁰ Dr. Haskins catches their careless attitude in a paraphrase of a contemporary letter: "At Orleans a young man pleads for help from his father because having quarrelled with a certain youth, as the devil would have it, he struck him on the head with a stick, so that he is now in prison and must pay fifty livres for his release, while his enemy is healed of his wound and goes free!"¹¹

Not only were individuals, including some highly-placed masters and officials, guilty of disturbing the peace, but also the recurrent mass demonstrations were very disquieting to the serious work of the universities. It was said that the young regent-masters used even the congregations to get concerted action for some disorderly scheme and spent their time there "planning their nocturnal raids."

The quarrels between the towns and the scholars were perhaps the most fruitful source of violence. They follow a recurring pattern: Some student or "client" would suffer a real or fancied injury at the hands of a citizen, others would try to help him take revenge, the officers would intervene to arrest or restore order, and voluntary reinforcements would pour in for both sides. It was a point of honor with the students that they should not be corrected by the police, and after a few sanguinary outbreaks they usually had their contentions recognized by the king or city fathers. A tavern brawl in Paris in 1200, in which the provost interfered and several people were killed, resulted in Philip Augustus' famous "charter" that practically removed members of the University from the operation of the common law.

One celebrated engagement between town and gown that well illustrates their more extreme manifestations occurred at Oxford in 1355. On St. Scholastica's Day that year, some students were making merry on their favorite feast day—again in a tavern. They made slighting remarks about the quality of the host's wine and he answered them surlily. Someone threw a flask at him and his friends gathered round. Almost before anyone knew what had happened blows were falling on every side, and perfect

strangers were taking part in the *melée*. The bells of St. Martin called the citizens to arms. The chancellor sounded a tocsin at St. Mary's, and the scholars responded. They seized the gates of the city to defend it against the rustics who had come to the aid of the town, but were unable to hold it in the face of the two thousand that appeared. Churches were plundered. The king came with troops, while the papal legate placed the town under an interdict and advised masters and scholars to leave. The quarrel lasted months, at the end of which the City of Oxford surrendered and agreed that on each succeeding St. Scholastica's Day the mayor, bailiff, and sixty chief burghers would say mass for the University's casualties. This they did, in form at least, until they were released from the vow in the nineteenth century.¹²

Major riots of this character were repeated many times at all the schools, but there were other causes besides the town-and-gown feud. One never-ending quarrel at Paris during the thirteenth century was that between the monks or friars and the secular clerks. The masters were partly responsible for this, as they resented the unwillingness of the increasing numbers of the regulars to take the oaths of the corporation because of previous vows to their orders. This tended to weaken their position when they contemplated direct action to coerce the town or chancellor.

Thus, in 1253 the mendicants refused to participate in a strike called because of the murder of a scholar by the police. They were expelled from the society of masters, and a statute was passed denying future admission to anyone who would not swear to obey statutes and suspend lectures when the majority so decided. The Pope, Alexander IV, who was a partisan of the Dominicans, declared the friars were in the right. Thereupon the University renounced its papal privileges and proclaimed its dissolution. This was an excuse for acts of violence on both sides; convents had to be guarded, and fights were liable to break out wherever regulars and seculars met. The mendicants were temporarily victorious, but they were continuously annoyed, and only after a long time did the feeling die down.¹³

Then, there was a meadow in front of the property belonging to the monks of St. Germain which was claimed by the masters of arts as their recreation ground. The abbot did not admit the claim. One day in 1278, masters and scholars were walking there when the monks sent out armed men to attack them. The clerks were seriously wounded, some were thrown into dungeons, and a few died from their injuries. The abbot and his monks were punished for the outrage by both pope and king, but that does

⁹ Gabriel Compayré, *Abelard and the Origin and Early History of the Universities* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1910), p. 273.

¹⁰ Achille Luchaire, *Social France in the Age of Philip Augustus*, translated by E. B. Krehbiel (New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1929), p. 83.

¹¹ C. H. Haskins, *Studies in Medieval Culture*, p. 33.

¹² R. S. Rait, *Life in the Medieval Universities*, pp. 125-126.

¹³ Ernest Lavisse, *Histoire de France*, III (Paris: Hachette, 1920-22), Part 2, pp. 382-384.

not seem to have been the end of the disputed claim.¹⁴

A third source of friction was the national feelings of the students. The success of the university in developing an "international mind" is one of its glories, but the rank and file of scholars were never wholly cosmopolitan. Any little difference might lead to an outbreak and provocations were frequent. John of Salisbury said that the Germans "talk magniloquently and swell with menaces" against the French, making fun of Louis VII because he lived simply among his subjects instead of conducting himself like a "barbarous tyrant."¹⁵ Oxford was forced to suspend its Irish members in the interests of peace. Quarrels between Lombards and Tuscans at Bologna once led to a migration. The Czechs at Prague bitterly resented the large numbers of Germans there and forced the king of Bohemia so to discriminate against them that the University of Vienna was founded to take care of the latter. Street-fighting between nationals was an all-too-common occurrence.

Finally, the philosophers of the Middle Ages had the courage of their conviction. When their finely forged weapons of dialectic failed to convince their opponents, they resorted to blows. Scotists fought against Occamists in the streets of Oxford, and nominalists clashed with realists at Prague. At Heidelberg in 1452 the rector forbade the disciples of the *via modernorum* using "contumelious words" against the *via antiquorum* lest they should lead to overt acts. The scholars were not allowed to vent their energies in organized tournaments, as these were too "unclerkly," but they could not be untouched by the customs of their age.

To turn to another aspect of the life of the medieval student, there is the subject of his poverty as reflected in his letters and the Goliardic poetry. It is easily possible to exaggerate this because of our own almost too luxurious standards of what is desirable. The scholars of those earlier years often merely shared the material discomforts of the age, but it is likely that young men away from home did sometimes have to undergo many unusual hardships when exchange of goods and money presented such difficulties.

Modern parents can probably echo an Italian father's resigned sigh: "A student's first song is a demand for money, and there will never be a letter which does not ask for cash."¹⁶ He is always "in desperate need of money for books and other necessary expenses." A specimen from Oxford says:

B. to his venerable master A., greeting. This

¹⁴ R. S. Rait, *Life in the Medieval Universities*, pp. 131-132.

¹⁵ Achille Luchaire, *Social France in the Age of Philip Augustus*, p. 68.

¹⁶ C. H. Haskins, *Studies in Medieval Culture*, pp. 7-8.

is to inform you that I am studying at Oxford with the greatest diligence but the matter of money stands greatly in the way of my progress, as it is now two months since I spent the last of what you sent me. The city is expensive and makes many demands; I have to rent lodgings, buy necessities, and provide for many other things which I cannot now specify. Wherefore I respectfully beg your paternity that by the promptings of divine pity you may assist me, so that I may be able to complete what I have well begun. For you must know that without Ceres and Bacchus Apollo grows cold. . . .¹⁷

That is really quite cheerful compared to other appeals. Many complain of the stark cold, lack of shelter, and pitiful hunger, repeating in numerous letters the lament of the poet:

I, a wandering scholar lad,
Born for toil and sadness
Oftentimes am driven by
Poverty to madness.

Literature and knowledge I
Fain would still be earning,
Were it not that want of pelf
Makes me cease from learning.

These torn clothes that cover me
Are too thin and rotten;
Oft I have to suffer cold,
By the warmth forgotten.¹⁸

Student poverty created a grave social problem for city and university, and various expedients were evolved to meet the condition. An ancient obligation made ecclesiastical benefices chargeable with a contribution to the support of students. One student tells of supporting himself by the alms he received from carrying holy water to the parishioners' houses, and there are several episcopal orders of the thirteenth century directing that this office be reserved to poor clerks. Charitable individuals sometimes took advantage of the clerical status of the student to make a donation in return for prayers. Grosseteste is credited with having provided eight marks a year for two chaplains who should say mass daily for his and his wife's souls.

Clerks who already held benefices might secure leave of absence to study, retaining their living therefrom while at school. Other young men who had shown scholastic ability might be specially appointed to benefices for this purpose, the abuse of which practice brought down the thunders of the preachers. The really serious and capable advanced student

¹⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 10; see also Helen Waddell, *The Wandering Scholars* (New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1934), pp. 143-144.

¹⁸ C. H. Haskins, *The Renaissance of the Twelfth Century*, p. 394.

could imitate John of Salisbury, who modestly admitted, "I receive the children of noble persons to instruct, who furnish me with a living—for I lacked the help of friends and kinsfolk, but God assuaged my neediness."¹⁹ The colleges, after the middle of the thirteenth century, while probably not doing much for the entirely destitute, did help a number of people to stay on in the schools.

If the poor scholar became too desperate or was not of very good character to start with, his poverty was an incentive to theft, especially when he might hope for the university's protection if caught. Many others became little more than professional beggars, wandering from university to university gathering alms, "making their real or pretended zeal for knowledge an excuse for the life of a tramp."²⁰

We see the scholar of the Middle Ages more clearly, perhaps, when he was being most lawless and when his sufferings were greatest. History is always more articulate about the sensational than

the ordinary. To end on a note of violence and tragedy, however, would be to distort the picture. These conditions were undoubtedly part of life in the schools, but in between escapades and periods of want their serious business went quietly and enthusiastically along. As Dr. Haskins has well expressed it: "In his relations to life and learning the medieval student resembled his modern successor far more than is often supposed. If his environment was different, his problems were much the same; if his morals were perhaps worse, his ambition was as active, his rivalries as intense, his desire for learning quite as keen."²¹ The ones who really counted went to the universities because there they could learn and associate with others of the same interests. Hardships and distractions never kept them from the pursuit and practise of the things that were most important to them, and the enduring influence of the schools comes down to us from men who felt with Hugo of St. Victor's that "learning is life's solace; he who finds it is happy and he who makes it his own is blessed."

¹⁹ R. L. Poole, *Illustrations of the History of Medieval Thought and Learning* (London: The Macmillan Company, 1920), p. 185.

²⁰ C. G. Crump and E. F. Jacobs, *The Legacy of the Middle Ages* (Oxford: The Clarendon Press, 1926), p. 261.

²¹ C. H. Haskins, *The Rise of the Universities*, p. 126.

Student Reports in the Social Studies

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During the last decade in American secondary schools there has been an apparent trend away from the formal class procedures toward a theory and practice of individual student participation in classroom work. This theory and practice has assumed various forms and has been based upon the conception that the teacher should do less formal work in the classroom and that the student should more actively participate. As a result, educational administrators have concerned themselves with the possibilities of developing more student initiative than heretofore for they have come to realize that since the student of today will be the citizen and voter of tomorrow, he must be thoroughly prepared to exercise those rights and obligations which fall upon him as a member of his community.

Experience, based upon study and observation, has indicated that the form of student participation which offers the greatest potentialities is student reports and discussions based upon subject matter di-

rectly connected with the course of study. In the social studies which include such subjects as economics, problems of democracy, history, sociology, and government we have a core about which society evolves and a rich and fertile field from which materials for reports may be drawn.

THE ASSIGNMENT OF THE REPORT

At the outset it must be realized that the course content cannot be sacrificed at the expense of student reports but that every effort should be made to allot the time element over a period of weeks or units of study so that each student will have the opportunity of presenting a report or reports prepared in his study periods or outside of school.

The teacher should exercise judgment in the assignment of reports so that the topic assigned will coincide with the unit currently being studied by the students. Such a procedure will prevent the group from going off on a tangent with the inevitable loss

of time which results. The correct assignment of reports is closely associated with the problem of individual student differences and care must be exercised to assign topics which are in line with the student's ability for nothing is more futile or discouraging to a student than the task of grappling with a topic or subject beyond his comprehension. When the assignment is made by the teacher, it should be both definite and worthy for the student should know exactly what goal he is seeking and should realize that his individual work will not only have a bearing upon the classroom discussion but will make a definite contribution to the knowledge of the group.

ORGANIZATION OF THE REPORT

Department heads should instruct their teachers at the beginning of each school year to devote a reasonable amount of time to conferences with students so that the materials for reports may be discussed and procedures for organization developed. Such discussions will clarify in the student's mind the problem to be attacked and will develop a uniformity of report with an ultimate saving of time and economy and will preclude the necessity of the teacher stopping at intervals throughout the school year to assist students in the organization of materials for their reports. This does not mean, however, that the guidance factor should be dropped during the school year, but that it will have to be less frequently employed.

A point for teachers to emphasize when aiding students in organization of materials for reports is that newspapers, pamphlets, and periodicals should be used as an important supplement to their textbooks and that such sources as public libraries, community clubs, and business and professional people, offer an almost inexhaustible supply and wealth of information which will be both pertinent and valuable. When discussing the organization of the report the teacher should insist that the report be drawn upon some prearranged basis with the idea in mind that the student will present his report in class at the assigned time and thereafter this report will be handed to the teacher to be graded for such factors as clearness of presentation, organization of material, extent of research and collateral reading, etc.

When organizing his report the student should be encouraged to collect such visual aids as can be readily incorporated and used with a minimum of time and a maximum of efficiency. Pictures, maps, graphs, and charts will be helpful, and will assist in providing a better comprehension of the subject. These visual aids will tend to create a greater student interest in the report and will be helpful

to the speaker because he will not have to lecture continuously.

Social studies teachers will find it profitable when beginning the study of a unit such as banking, for example, to take the entire class to the library for a few periods if school regulations permit and survey all available materials there. This can and should be done in a coöperative fashion with both the teacher and students browsing through books, and newspapers for materials dealing with the general problem. With banking and financial regulations, etc. being constantly revised to meet changing internal and foreign conditions, it is essential that this procedure be followed.

TECHNIQUE OF PRESENTING THE REPORT

Techniques of presenting the reports in class will vary according to the requirements and wishes of the teacher. However, certain fundamental ideas may be formulated and applied with equal emphasis in all situations. These are as follows:

(1) Whenever possible a social or seminar room should be used when it is anticipated by the teacher that a considerable portion of the class period will be devoted to student reports. New surroundings will have the tendency of putting the student at ease and serve as a means of arousing and stimulating student interest and participation.

(2) Before the report is presented in class, the teacher should lead up to the presentation by either a discussion or a lecture concerning the subject matter which precedes or is closely allied to the materials which will be presented by the student.

(3) The teacher should advise all students that during the course of the report that they have the privilege of interrupting the speaker to ask pertinent questions providing they do so in an orderly fashion.

(4) If time permits at the conclusion of the student's report the teacher should sum up the important facts or issues involved so that the main points will be classified in the students' mind.

VALUES DERIVED FROM PRESENTATION OF REPORTS

Too much cannot be said for the values derived from student reports in the social studies, for not only do they give fullness to the course but also provide for student growth. Reports should instill something which we may term as a "standard of value" because students will be required to weigh information and consolidate that which is the most important into his report, discarding the non-essential. Personalities and achievements in the several branches of the social sciences should form a basis for arousing student enthusiasms and create the desire to read and research widely.

Reports will do much to balance individual student differences as those who are capable of pursuing an exhaustive search may do so while those limited in vision are given the opportunity of selecting topics which do not require extensive reading and research.

Leadership in group work, poise, and ease as well as mental alertness can be developed through the use of reports in the social sciences. State and community life today demands that students be prepared to actively take their part in society and it is through these means that the cornerstones for this future work may be laid. If the student is given a knowledge of how democracy functions through the reports given on the unit in government, a worthwhile objective will have been achieved and his interest in civic affairs and how good government

functions will be increased.

The habit of good reading may be cultivated because students will encounter the necessity of tapping numerous sources of information when gathering materials for their reports. The new channels which are thus opened will provide for future leisure time, activity and at the same time will help to insure good literary habits.

The necessity of preparing a report brings the student face to face with the necessity of "doing something for which he himself is responsible." The student is required to gather a mass of scattered but related information and data and to analyze and to plan its presentation in much the same fashion as he will have to analyze and scrutinize the difficulties and obstacles which he will face in everyday life.

News and Comment

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COMPETENT TEACHING

The measure of teaching competence is the change it effects in the pupil. The literature dealing with the characteristics of fine teaching ignores this fact, describing competency instead in terms of the personality traits of teachers, such as appearance, poise, humor, forcefulness, vivacity, charm, sympathy, loyalty, and coöperation. The stone which the builders have been rejecting, Professor Stephen M. Corey of the University of Chicago described in *The Elementary School Journal* for April ("Evaluating Technical Teaching Competence"). His analysis, based on many years of first-hand study of classroom instruction, merits the attention of all teachers.

Is personality, he asked, a guarantee that the teacher possesses "teaching skills and understandings which make for the effective stimulation of pupil learning?" May not charming manners hide professional ineptitude? Pupils themselves frequently distinguish between teachers they like best and those who "know the subject better" or who are "better at explaining lessons and assignments." Pupils who want to learn something will set less store by manner and charm, noticing rather the knowledge and competence of the instructor.

If teaching competence depends upon traits other than merely personality traits, what are they? Without attempting to be exhaustive, Professor Corey cites six. First in importance is the ability of the teacher to learn about children as the starting point and basis

for teaching them. Hardly less important is his knowledge of the outcomes desired—the specific changes in pupil behavior that should result from teaching. But merely knowing them is not enough; they must be embodied in effective procedures. For the objectives must become living reality in the experience of the learner.

A third factor of teaching competence is the understanding and application of techniques for appraising learning. What kinds of questions does the teacher ask? For pupils are likely to want to learn little more than what they are questioned about. If questions call mainly for information, this will be the pupil's objective. A related factor of teaching competence is the ability to provoke pupil curiosity. Important in sizing up this factor are the number and kind of voluntary questions asked by pupils. "Certainly, children whose curiosity is aroused are inveterate questioners." Do teachers ask most of the questions because their pupils are too little interested in what they are doing to ask them? Part of teaching competence is the skill in so relating the curriculum to pupil need and interest that pupils see it and desire to be active in it.

A fifth element of teaching competence is the ability of the teacher to provide children with varied learning experiences. Too often only experiences with book reading and class discussion are provided. The useful and edifying experiences gained on trips, by the use of audio-visual materials, panels, and the

like are but some of the varieties of experience at hand in the school and community. Finally, how well equipped is the teacher from the standpoint of his knowledge and understanding of the field in which he is working? A lesson in literature may involve psychology, sociology, science, geography, and history. The breadth and depth of the teacher's knowledge and insight set the level of his teaching competence.

It is evident that these factors in teaching competence are not dependent upon charm and personality. These qualities can contribute much to making technical skill effective, but they are not adequate substitutes for it.

EDUCATION FOR EVERYDAY LIVING

Pursuit of the traditional routine of daily teaching may hide from the teacher the failure on the part of the pupil to learn essentials for living. An arresting warning was given to principals and teachers by Professor Russell T. Gregg of Syracuse University in the leading article of *The School Review* for May ("Civic Competence and Occupational Adjustment in the Secondary School.") He is disarming at first in his criticisms. It seems commonplace to define the task of secondary education as that of providing pupils with experiences that will enable them to acquire the information, interests, attitudes, skills, and habits leading to realistic and effective participation in the individual and social concerns of community living.

In other words, the school must teach youth how to participate in living in the effective ways our democratic life requires. That, says Professor Gregg, the traditional program of the secondary school cannot do for half of those who do graduate and for all or nearly all who fail to graduate! The successful pursuit of the traditional high school program is no warrant that our youth go forth possessing "the information, attitudes, and skills essential to successful everyday living." Does the daily routine of the classroom blind us to this fundamental failure?

To Professor Gregg the road to the successful accomplishment of the major task lies in a direct approach to the objective of citizenship and vocational competence. The idea has been expressed time and again. But it needs to be clothed in tangible procedure and action, as an inventor clothes an idea in gears and valves and shafts. Educational or social invention is needed in the form of concrete procedures. These Professor Gregg does not provide, but he suggests how to find them.

Make the school a laboratory for the study and practice of democratic behavior. Seek specific school situations, for instance, which will produce democratic, civic competence. He suggests coöperative services and undertakings of various kinds, in school

and out: drives, campaigns, and other individual and group activities which make for democratic living. As much a part of the situation as the activity, is the pupil's awareness and appreciation of the meaning of the activity. Like Professor Corey, Professor Gregg presents to us old problems whose solution still is not general in the classroom.

SCHOOL PROGRAM FOR ADOLESCENTS

Those seeking to make "Readjustments in the School Program for the Adolescent" will find it necessary to take into account four important youth problems of our day, according to Professor Nelson L. Bossing's article in the June number of *The School Review*. Modern developments in the economic field postpone employment of youth longer than at any time in the past. Nowadays, also, marriage is postponed for years after sexual readiness. Similarly, activity in the social-civic life of the adult community is deferred, principally because of the postponement of marriage and gainful employment. Finally, never was it so difficult for youth to understand the society into which he is born and to cope with its requirements for successful living.

These facts of the social situation will play a large part in shaping the school program. But two other facts will be no less important. First is the necessity for giving the adolescent an understanding of himself and his changing physical and social environment. This calls for the development of his knowledge, skill, and insight. But beyond this, his "will to achieve" must be cultivated. For it is the driving force. The second fact is the necessity for educating the adolescent with respect to his own problems in his environment.

Professor Bossing's discussion raises five questions: During the long period between the beginning of adolescence and full participation in adulthood, (1) How can the school provide the experiences necessary to develop the youth for the larger participation in adult life? (2) How can it orient him to the family and citizenship life of the community? (3) How can it expand that citizenship to cover the broader areas of state, national, and international life, in a world that has shrunk to neighborhood size? (4) How shall he be trained for vocational life? (5) How shall he be prepared for leisure, so that his character and powers grow, giving him his full stature as a man?

NEW WORLD ORDER

Not so long ago much was being written to explain totalitarianism and compare it with democracy. A little later, and still continuing, much was said about defending the democratic way. Now, more and more thought is being given to problems which the world will face after World War II. This

is a subject about which teachers must keep well informed.

It is generally agreed that the post-war problems will be stupendous, economically burdensome for a long time, and will be solved, if at all, by way of a new order of some kind. Merely to list the articles dealing with the subject would be a lengthy undertaking. The selections here presented reveal what the great number of thoughtful people are thinking and proposing.

The entire issue of *Fortune* for August was devoted to a study of what is required to transform our nation into one organized for total war against totalitarianism. Nothing less is needed to meet the threat to true world peace and to guarantee the basic liberties whose loss, we believe, would deprive life of worth. All phases of mobilization for such war were studied: economic, civilian, political, and military. A remarkable world map suggests that the United States holds a central and strategic position among the nations engaged in this war.

Vera Micheles Dean, well-known editor and research director of the Foreign Policy Association, in the May 15 issue of *Foreign Policy Reports*, discussed, in a long essay, what is involved in a drive "Toward a New World Order" based on democratic victory. Her task was to survey the problem, in preparation for detailed studies of specific problems which her association and other groups may and will make. Her discussion is penetrating and enlightening. Mrs. Dean cites many important references to American and British literature on the subject of a new world order. A condensation of this *Report* was made by Mrs. Dean in the June issue of the *Survey Graphic*, under the title, "Can Democracy Win the Peace?"

The question has received attention repeatedly from the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, and relevant addresses and essays have been printed in *International Conciliation*. A book-size collection of nearly thirty addresses and essays of considerable value was printed in the issue for April (No. 369). All aspects of the question received attention—national, international, war and peace, political, economic, cultural, social, and religious.

For background, the article by Harry Elmer Barnes in the July number of *Social Science* is valuable. He described "The Historical and Institutional Setting of the Second World War" as part of a transition movement in history comparable to the three other great transitions in human history—from Stone Age to civilization, from ancient to medieval, and from the Middle Ages to the early modern era.

Professor Sidney B. Fay of Harvard University, years ago in his *Origins of the World War*, made one of the most authoritative studies of that conflict. In *Events* for April and May he analyzed the "Prob-

lems of Peace Settlement" laid on our doorstep by World War II.

In suggesting plans for a new and better world order Professor Fay recognized the difficulties to be faced, in no small measure because of the uncertainty as to the military outcome, the emotional tensions and psychological conditions under which we labor, and the absence of announced aims by reliable national heads. Nevertheless, after canvassing German and British war aims and American peace aims, on the basis of declarations and writings of responsible leaders, Professor Fay drew up a program for our guidance, in the event of a British victory.

A positive program for peace must avoid three things. It must not dictate peace, but must negotiate it. The play of negotiation between victor and vanquished takes the sting out of the settlement. If based upon British victory, it must not attempt to break Germany up into small states, reversing an historical trend which Hitler has been completing by unifying Germany into one centralized state. And it must not demand large reparations.

Like so many other students, Professor Fay sees the war as being in large measure the consequence of national sovereignties competing for trade, materials, and other economic advantages. The political nation-system evidently is too small to contain what is becoming a regional if not a global economic system. His program provides for an enlargement of the traditional nation-state as, let us say, the American states of 1781 enlarged their political system in 1789 into a federal state. Some similar sacrifice of traditionally sovereign powers would have to be made by the nations.

Three preliminary steps must be taken in the peace program. Independence must be restored to nations conquered by Hitler; frontiers must be rectified; and armaments must be reduced. Then the way will be clear to establish a federal organization to preserve peace, secure international justice, and provide for collective security. Collectively, the nations in the federal organization must remove tariff and other barriers to trade, perhaps by setting up acceptable regional economic areas and equalizing access to raw materials. Such matters as currency and rates of exchange must be dealt with on a basis not of competition but of coöperation among the nations. Similar collaboration is needed to handle problems of the business cycle and of social justice.

This program reminds one of the six "c's" of the "Union Now" idea: a democratic international federation in which the federation controls the currency, customs (tariffs), communications, colonies (territories or possessions), cannon (armaments), and citizenship. Professor Fay sketched the actualities of a new world order based on a reorganized League

of Nations or on "Union Now," or on four great regional federations which might in time unite into one—Europe, the western hemisphere, the Far East, and the Soviet Republics.

The case for "Union Now" was presented, pro and con, in the June-July issue of the *Congressional Digest*. For high school use, this study of the question of uniting the world's democracies is one of the best. A brief review of the history of the Federal Union Movement is presented and a summary of its program is stated. The pro and con debate is on the question, "Should America Join a Move for a Federal Union of the World's Democracies?" Included in the presentation is a brief account of the organization and principles of the leading opponent of Federal Union, the America First Committee.

In the leading article of the June number of *Current History and Forum*, on "America's Destiny," Basil C. Walker called for a Pax Americana to take the place of the fading Pax Britannica. Even with victory, Britain has paid too heavy a price to regain her position. We need no plan, if Germany wins. That we must be determined to prevent. "The vital, determining factor is that unless we do impose a Pax Americana in the years to come we shall cease to be a nation; we shall cease to deserve to be a nation, for there is no reason for America to exist if we are not to fulfill the philosophy and the tradition enshrined in our Declaration of Independence."

That an Anglo-American victory requires us to be one of the leaders in post-war settlements and in the long-range activities for enduring peace is the thought, too, of Professor C. C. Eckhardt of the University of Colorado. As an historian he interpreted "The Significance of the Present World Revolution," in *School and Society* for July 19. He regards the totalitarian movements as counter-revolutions whose success would destroy what we call western civilization, which rests on Christian, democratic ideas of individual worth, brotherhood of man, and individual rights and liberties. To us, reared in our traditional culture, the totalitarian ideology is as incomprehensible as it is utterly destructive of what we think life is worth living for. A Hitler victory means enslavement of the human race by the victor. A stalemate means an impoverished Europe that would make the Germanies at the end of the Thirty Years War seem prosperous. A British victory might mean another Versailles Treaty. Can we prevent that? What does democracy require of a peace settlement?

In conclusion, let us look at the post-war world right here in the United States. The editors of the *New Republic* have been writing about this matter since last year. And the series of stirring editorials was not completed in July last. On December 9 they discussed "Standards of Living and of Life"; on

December 23, "The alternative to Fascism"; on February 10, "Ground Plan for a Post-War World"; and on May 26, "What Comes After the War?"

In the issue for July 21, the editors described what needed to be planned for and done in "Making America Over." Their discussion of such problems as poverty, land conservation, housing, health, education, and the arts is illuminating. For youth, the value of the discussion lies less in the particular suggestions offered than in the untraditional and novel thoughts. Traditional, rigid outlooks are likely to be jolted loose, and mental lag diminished.

AMERICAN BUSINESS AND HITLER

Douglas Miller spent fifteen years prior to 1939 as commercial attaché at the American embassy in Berlin. He had a wonderful chance to study nazi economic methods, plans, purposes, and practices at first hand. It drove him to the inescapable conclusion that the nazis are like American gangsters in aims, attitudes, methods, and principles, and not like responsible leaders of governments.

If Hitler wins in Europe, how will the business of an independent America be affected? This question is answered by Mr. Miller in an article on "American Business and Hitler," in *The Atlantic Monthly* for July. Our system of free, private enterprise will undergo great modification. We shall have to do business with peoples under German control. Their business will be entirely controlled by the German government. Its policy is and will be to play the business firms of a nation off against others, offering inducements, bringing pressure to bear, and doing anything judged to be of benefit to Germany. German firms, through their government, deal as a unit, placing our separate and competing individual firms at a great disadvantage. In self defense, our own government will have to regiment our foreign business and present a unified front to the German economic system. Since Germany takes all money entering the realm and issues only its own depreciated currency, how would we deal with foreign exchange? If export business is forced under government control, can other business escape being affected?

What will happen to our system of communications, to our telephone system, radio, our mail, and our movies? Could we continue on a decentralized, laissez faire plan while the nazi state uses every channel to propagandize as it sees fit and to censor and dictate the thoughts of men? Already we have had experience with nazi control and confiscations of all kinds of property in Germany and German controlled lands. What about patent rights? What about safety in travel for a foreigner in such regions? Could we safely allow their sailors, travelers, and other nationals the freedom we have been accus-

tomed to extend to visitors to our shores? Would the nazis pay royalties? Could we get raw materials from the eastern hemisphere except on terms most advantageous to Germany? On what terms would they allow us to sell them our surplus cotton, tools, and machinery?

If Hitler holds Europe, what becomes of the Pope and the Catholic Church? Would Hitler hesitate to confiscate the property of the Church? What would happen to American contributions to the Vatican? If Hitler wins, it seems to Mr. Miller that we would be forced to set up some kind of totalitarian state in order to be in a position to compete and deal with him on nearly equal terms. Individualism and laissez faire cannot grapple with nazi penetration and machinations. These views of an American attaché in Berlin have more than ordinary significance.

ROLE OF THE TEXTBOOK

The textbook has long been a willing and constant servant of the classroom. The abuse of it has caused some to deprecate its use and to hold it in contempt. A dispassionate appraisal of "The Place of the Textbook in Modern Education" was made in the May issue of *The Harvard Educational Review* by Professor Ralph W. Tyler, Chairman of the Department of Education, University of Chicago.

His article does two things. It shows that the educational world in which the textbook operates is a different world from that of a few generations ago and, in consequence, that the uses and functions of the textbook have undergone corresponding change. The voice of scorn must be kept for those who continue to use textbooks as if the conditions and thought of a bygone period still characterized our day.

Our educational world is the result of the play of at least eight forces: the wider range of objectives now recognized by educators, the stress upon a more thoroughly unified or integrated curriculum, the fact that a greater number of media of learning exist than ever before, the striving for continuity in the whole educational program, the emphasis upon teaching pupils how to become skilled in study, experimentation with various ways of organizing the learning experience of students, the effort to tie in school activities with local needs and resources, and the stress now laid upon the personal-social needs of students.

How shall the textbook be fitted into this kind of educational world? It should be used neither as the sole source of information nor as the only kind of material of learning. It renders a great service by providing an organization of materials. That saves time and energy. But it should not deprive the pupil of the experience of organizing materials for himself. It should help him as he matures from year to year,

to deepen and broaden his insight, skill, and other powers. Previous learnings will and should come up. As they do they should be used on more advanced levels or in different circumstances. Here the textbook can point the way. It should be of use also in working on the personal-social problems of students. And, in recognition of pupil differences, now that all of the younger generation goes to school, the textbook should not try to be appropriate for all, leveled down to the mediocre, but should be designed to fit the needs of different groups, of a particular, large, clientele. One thinks of textbooks designed for vocational students, for college preparatory pupils, or for the so-called nonacademics. This article should be read by all high school teachers.

FOR TEACHERS AND CLASSES

Pupils who still believe that Great Britain "owns the British Empire" and rules her dominions should read Sir Norman Angell's answer to the question, "Who Owns the British Empire?" which appeared in the May issue of *Survey Graphic*. Sir Norman made it plain that the British Commonwealth of Nations is a partnership and not an imperial state. In its dominions political and economic power are wholly independent of British law. The article shows the epoch-making features of the revolutionary Statute of Westminster of 1931. The special case of India is explained. Sir Norman believes that India will achieve dominion status.

Thirteen pictures of "Street Life and Inns Through the Ages" comprised the fourth portfolio of *The Educational Forum* for May. Attention has been drawn previously in this department to similar portfolios. These pictures are useful for pupils in the high school.

The May issue of *Congressional Digest* studied the proposal to build a Great Lakes-St. Lawrence Seaway. It reviewed the history of the project, gave reports of engineers and government officials, and presented arguments, pro and con, by American and Canadian leaders and organizations, on the question, "Should the Proposed Great Lakes-St. Lawrence Seaway Be Approved by Congress?"

A detailed analysis of thirty-eight manuals on how to study, which were designed for high schools and appeared between 1926 and 1939, was made by two Canadians, Samuel R. Laycock and David H. Russell, in the May number of *The School Review*. "An Analysis of Thirty-Eight How-To-Study Manuals," with twenty-four main divisions and scores of individual items on 517 study habits and skills, is a mine of information for teachers.

The May number of *The Journal of Educational Sociology* gave the conclusion of the survey of radio and education which had been begun in the February issue. The May number dealt mainly with radio in

the classroom. The articles are especially helpful to teachers because most of them came from the pens of persons intimately identified with such activity. Gilbert Seldes edited this number as he did the earlier one (see this department in the April issue of *THE SOCIAL STUDIES*).

Last June the American Council on Education published *The Teacher and International Relations*, a 19-page pamphlet prepared by its Committee on Materials for Teachers in International Relations. In addition to appraising the effects of the world crisis upon our schools and upon our work as teachers of the next generation, the committee marked out four main needs for a democratic program of study of international relations. It also listed sources for reference and classroom use. A second publication was promised for July: *American Isolation Reconsidered*. This 150-page study of the history of American neutrality since the founding of the republic presents basic documents and reviews the history of our foreign relations. Both publications are inexpensive and useful. Address the Council at 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D.C.

"Food for a Stronger America" was the title of a special section of the July *Survey Graphic*. Distinguished government officials and others contributed to a symposium on "diets, prices, farm policies and defense." A nutrition chart and many pictures enhance the value of the articles for the classroom.

The feeling that teachers have of the material value of their work to America was brilliantly expressed by former NEA president, Willis A. Sutton. The May issue of *The Journal* of the NEA printed the address: "Education the Mainstay of Business." No teacher should miss this.

EDUCATION FOR A STRONG AMERICA

American Education Week, this year, falls on

November 9-15. Its theme, "Education for a Strong America," is embodied in seven activities for the week:

Sunday: Seeking World Order
Monday: Building Physical Fitness
Tuesday: Strengthening National Morale
Wednesday: Improving Economic Wellbeing
Thursday: Safeguarding School Support
Friday: Learning the Ways of Democracy
Saturday: Enriching Family Life

Coöperating in the observance of American Education Week are the National Education Association, the United States Office of Education, the American Legion, and the National Congress of Parents and Teachers. As in other years, the National Education Association (1201 Sixteenth Street, Northwest, Washington, D.C.) is prepared to supply schools with information and materials.

Other materials are useful and pertinent. The NEA American Education Week *Handbook*, published last year, will help in planning. Inspiring and timely was the leading article in the April issue of *The School Review*, on "Education for Life in a Democracy." In it, Professor Harry K. Newburn of the University of Iowa and director of the University High School, made a stimulating re-statement of the fundamental educational objective of making men. He was concerned entirely with that purpose in a democratic setting, in an atmosphere of freedom.

Freedom, he pointed out, is something earned and not merely bestowed. It requires individual responsibility equally with privilege, and it lives on the nourishment of self discipline. His exposition gives better understanding of our educational functions and renews one's drive to make our democracy better by making better men and women.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

EDITED by RICHARD HEINDEL

University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia

The Irrepressible Democrat: Roger Williams. By Samuel Hugh Brockunier. New York: The Ronald Press Company. 1940. Pp. xii, 305. \$4.00.

Here is a warm and intimate biography of a resolute and restless knight errant in the cause of democracy. And yet it is more than a biography. The peculiar genius and temper of the "irrepressible democrat" take on significance when he is placed in the compelling currents of his time. Democracy was not entirely the product of the wilderness. It came across the sea and lost nothing of its strength in the

passage. Williams stood as the personal embodiment of the rising wave of English protest against outrageous social ills. He was a fine product of the Reformation which sought to crown man with the right of self-expression.

In that very day Puritanism also took passage and found in the Bay Colony a fuller opportunity to realize its tenets in practice. The Zion of the Bay Saints and the humble enterprise of Williams open the drama of social experiments in the great American laboratory. Here is the opening scene in the dramatic struggle between orthodoxy and freedom.

Much of this study is focused upon the tragic collision between two radically divergent ways of life. The contrast and conflict is drawn in strong and bold lines. We do not see how it could well be avoided. There was no room in the Bay Colony for Williams where his attacks struck hard at the very heart and soul of regimentation. The region of Rhode Island seemed to offer an escape from the intolerable burdens of the Puritan system. But separation in ideals was not accompanied by full separation in geography and the clash of systems and interests persisted through the years. The author shows no desire to praise or blame; simply to explain. The sincerity of the opposing leaders is not doubted. But steeped in the democratic tradition and process, this study enlists our sympathy in the gallant effort of Williams to work out a democratic pattern of life.

Democracy as a scheme of human relationships is not to be attained by the mere asking. It must be won and maintained by persistent struggle. And the life and labor of Williams as portrayed here confirm the worth of individual effort. This is strongly impressed upon the mind. The human limitations of Williams are fairly recognized but the man never wearied in checking the intrigues and bullying of the Bay Colony or the sinister designs of non-social forces within Rhode Island. He counted not the sacrifice in two voyages to England where he secured chartered legality for the colony and where he used his voice and pen on behalf of religious liberty then in peril. The humanity of the man is striking. His mediating influence with the Indians stands in striking contrast with the outrageous conduct of the Bay Colony.

Of books on Williams the number is generous, but not one brings such a sense of soundness and satisfaction as this the latest. The facts are plentiful but into them is fused the breath of life and meaning. The study rests upon abundant evidence skillfully handled. In style it attests to the belief that sound history and good literature go well together. This volume comes opportunely, for today democracy is at the crossroads. Our hope is that it will have a wide appeal.

WINFRED T. ROOT

University of Iowa
Iowa City, Iowa

Youth, Family and Education. By Joseph K. Falsom. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1941. Pp. xv, 299. \$1.75.

In view of the rapid social changes that are taking place, the effect of these changes on family life, and the increased attention that is being given to the problem of education for family living, this volume is timely, interesting, and valuable.

The author first discusses the changing objectives

of education. To quote his words: "No one can say which of the modern objectives of education is the most important. Certainly they are all interrelated. The present writer claims only that family living should rank at least on a par with vocation, citizenship, leisure, and health; that it is neither implied in nor automatically cared for by other objectives; that it requires explicit recognition in itself."

While admitting that certain former functions and activities have been removed from the home, Dr. Folsom stresses the increase in intensity and importance of the functions that remain, and pictures the far reaching consequences of the evils that result when these functions are not performed smoothly. Herein lies the challenge to education. The author gives an interesting review of the development in the United States of the movement to educate for family living, pointing out the salient features of the work that is being done by educational institutions, beginning with the nursery and continuing through the college level, and also by organizations and agencies outside the school. The study of present day practices and problems associated with the movement has resulted in important recommendations.

The appendix contains a list of the agencies which promote education for family living and also a serviceable bibliography.

Undoubtedly this study will prove of great value to educators, students, and organizations; in fact to all those who are interested in improving family living.

A. W. SELWYN LITTLE

John Harris High School
Harrisburg, Pennsylvania

The Path I Trod. Autobiography of Terrence V. Powderly. Edited by Harry J. Carman, Henry David, and Paul N. Guthrie. New York: Columbia University Press, 1940. Pp. xiv, 460. \$4.50.

Terence V. Powderly left a large mass of papers among which was this somewhat incoherent autobiography. The editors have done an excellent piece of work in preparing it for publication and it presents a characteristic picture of one of the most significant of American labor leaders.

Powderly was the son of an Irish immigrant who became a machinist in the Pennsylvania mining region. Here he came under the influence of John Siney and interested himself in labor legislation. He joined the Knights of Labor and by 1879 he was the Grand Master Workman of the Order. He likewise had a political bent and became Mayor of Scranton. He led the Knights of Labor until he was forced out in 1893. Beginning in 1897 he began a period of service in Washington in various government bureaus, generally connected with immi-

gration or labor, until his death in 1924.

His reminiscences deal almost exclusively with his labor career and there is little mention of his work after 1902. He dwells upon his own point of view at length. He speaks of himself as an equalizer who did not believe in the wage system but wanted to develop coöperation and profit sharing in place of the conflict between labor and capital. He takes particular pains to show how little he had to do with strikes and goes into detail regarding his connection with the telegrapher's strike of 1883, the strike on the Gould system in 1886, the Chicago strike of the packers that same year and the New York Central strike of 1890. In several instances particularly in that of the Gould strike, he corrects history.

He gives significant data regarding the difficulty of organizing labor, dwelling particularly upon ecclesiastical opposition. He describes intimately the ritual of the Knights of Labor and quotes a good deal of correspondence. It is an interesting human document and displays a fiery tempered, voluble, idealist who sought to work for the welfare of his fellowmen. It is made much more valuable by frequent footnote comments by the editors.

ROY F. NICHOLS

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Memoirs of Jeremiah Curtin. Edited by Joseph Schafer. Wisconsin Biography Series, Volume II. Madison: The State Historical Society of Wisconsin, 1940. Pp. 925. \$3.00.

The memoirs of the famous linguist, translator, folklorist, traveler, explorer, ethnologist, journalist, businessman, and diplomat are here published almost in their entirety for the first time. The book leaves a disappointing impression. For the most part a record of his travels, it contains an immense amount of trivia while skimming over the people and events that the reader would like most to hear about. Slavists, for example, will find very little of value concerning Sienkiewicz. Throughout the book the author seems too hard engaged in a race against time to permit himself the luxury of reflection or leisurely reminiscence. He was, after all, a busy man. There were so many languages yet to be learned, so many fast-dying myths to be collected while still available. Commenting on the narrow escape from violent death of one of his Indian friends he remarks laconically: "Had he been killed at that time our knowledge of Wintu mythology would have been very slight."

The Introduction would have been better with a careful description of the manuscript and a statement of the principles followed in editing it, particularly in view of the unsystematic transliteration and faulty Russian to be found in the printed text. An index,

although incomplete, will be useful to those who, like, Curtin, find themselves pressed for time.

FRANCIS J. WHITFIELD

The Library of Congress
Washington, D.C.

Invasion in the Snow: A Study of Mechanized War. By John Langdon-Davis. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1941. Pp. 202. \$2.50.

One of the staunch defenders of the Loyalist's cause in Spain now writes of Russia's recent invasion of Finland. He watched the struggle in the deep snows of the Finnish forests from January until the peace of March 1940. He examined the military tactics and propaganda of both nations and he observed the Finnish ways of life. His sympathies are broad. They extend equally to the Russian plainmen frozen or starving in the northern woods and to the Finnish victims of the aggressor's tanks and bombers. But the responsibility for this suffering he places solely on the politicians at the Kremlin, men, who impelled by motives similar to those of Peter the Great, not only allowed politics to obscure their scientific military problem but willingly sacrificed their own people "with a liberality usually attributed to profit-making merchants of death."

This book assembles a convincing picture of Finland's stalwart men and women and of her basically democratic institutions. Step by step Mr. Langdon-Davis proves the absurdities of soviet propaganda to the contrary. He claims that the Finns resisted Russian aggression in the face of inevitable defeat as their contribution to the support of that western civilization of which they feel themselves a part. Their amazing understanding of the unique strength of their terrain enabled them to develop scientific methods of defense which bewildered and destroyed overwhelming numbers of troops in Russia's modern, mechanized army. The discipline and self-sufficiency of the average Finnish citizen explains the short lists of casualties during the bombing of Finland's unprotected cities. The far sighted social legislation of the Finnish government since 1918 made its people proof against Fifth Column activities and determined to escape Soviet rule at any sacrifice. Here in the smoothly written pages of a sensitive and critical journalist lies material of which epic poems are made.

GRACE FOX

Washington, D.C.

The Struggle for Judicial Supremacy: A Study of a Crisis in American Power Politics. By Robert H. Jackson. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1941. Pp. xx, 361. \$3.00.

This notable book by the Attorney General of the United States is concerned with the struggle of the

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New Deal *against* judicial supremacy. The author's purpose is not to give a history of the Supreme Court even for a brief period, but, as he frankly says, to select "only the debits," neglecting the credits which "must enter into any balanced judgment of the work of the Court" as a whole. On the debit side, he asserts that at the beginning of the administration of Franklin D. Roosevelt, the Court "was substituting its judgment for that of Congress," and "judicial review governed our society or economy." His purpose is to "set the Roosevelt Court proposal and the Court's own steps to reform in their historical and constitutional perspective."

By 1933 the Court "sat almost as a continuous constitutional convention which, without submitting its proposals to any ratification or rejection, could amend the basic law." This supremacy it used to "cripple other departments of government and to disable the nation from adopting social or economic policies which were deemed inconsistent with the Justices' philosophy of property rights." This judicial supremacy, Jackson maintains, is inconsistent with popular government, and cites instances to uphold his contention that, in the past, the Court's judgment has proved to be wrong "on the most outstanding issues upon which it has chosen to challenge the popular branches"—Congress and the Executive. Liberals therefore raised the issue of the right of the

judiciary to thwart the policies of the representative branches of government by opposing its philosophy in the name of the Constitution. To them it seemed that the Court unduly favored private economic power and always found ways of circumventing the efforts of popular government to control or regulate it, even to the extent of construing the "liberty" of the "due process clause"—in accordance with the *laissez faire* philosophy—as a guarantee of *freedom of contract* against government regulation designed to promote social justice.

When the Court nullified the NIRA legislation, President Roosevelt, by his proposal of 1937, sought to divest the judiciary of the function of arbiter of public policy. Although the proposal was defeated, Jackson holds that court reform was achieved, for the time being, at least, because "the effect of the attack was exemplary and disciplinary." Several decisions based on "important changes in legal theory were announced before there was any change in the Justices." Thus the justices themselves corrected the errors of the Court, effecting reforms long advocated by an able minority of their own number, and tending "to confine the judicial power to its traditional and proper sphere."

HOMER C. HOCKETT

Ohio State University
Columbus, Ohio

Aeronautics in the Union and Confederate Armies: With a Survey of Military Aeronautics to 1861.
By F. Stansbury Haydon. Baltimore, Maryland:
The Johns Hopkins Press, 1941. Pp. xxii, 421.
\$4.00.

The importance of military aeronautics at the present stage of world affairs is obvious to all who read the daily press. It is with the origins and early development of this powerful aspect of the art and science of warfare that Haydon's book is concerned. Actually, the present volume, exhaustive though it is, is but the first of two books which will eventually be the most complete account of the subject ever written by any author in any language.

As one who has himself worked over some of the scattered materials involved in the preparation of Haydon's volume, the present reviewer freely testifies to his admiration for the former's industry and ability. No work that has been written on this subject of military aeronautics as it pertains to American experience has ever approached the present volume for accuracy, completeness, and breadth of documentary support. In fact, the book might well serve as a model for any careful monographic study of a subject hitherto obscure. Haydon spent four years of research before the book could be written, and every page testifies to his care and foresight. There are no fewer than 1834 footnotes in the volume, referring constantly to more than fifty contemporary American newspapers, upwards of sixty hitherto unused manuscript collections in the National Archives, and to hundreds of printed histories, diaries, and similar works. There are forty-five fine illustrations, while the author's expressions of personal acknowledgments fill several pages.

The book contains a lucid history of military balloons from their original use in the wars of the French Revolution down to 1861, including their employment in the Crimean War and in the Austro-Sardinian conflict in 1859. Even more in detail there is presented the story of ballooning in the United States prior to 1861, including the careers of James Allen of Rhode Island, John Wise of Pennsylvania, John La Mountain of New York, and especially of T.S.C. Lowe of New Hampshire. There follows the story of how these various men severally strove to get ballooning accepted by the government of the United States as an auxiliary branch of the army, and how in the end T. S. C. Lowe succeeded in accomplishing this very thing. By the end of 1862 the Balloon Corps of the Army of the Potomac comprised seven military balloons especially built for army reconnaissance under the directions of Lowe.

Haydon presents three exhaustive chapters on Lowe's aeronautic organization, dealing respectively with the matters of materiel and personnel, administration, and operation. He carries the account of

operations up to the end of March, 1862, and promises in his second and concluding volume to complete the history of this phase of the great American conflict. Erudite and detailed as is the present volume, it is nevertheless readable and interesting to the layman as well as to the scholar. Both will agree, without doubt, that the book merits the award of the Mrs. Simon Baruch University Prize, offered by the United Daughters of the Confederacy for the outstanding doctoral dissertation of the year in the field of history relating to the Confederacy.

J. DUANE SQUIRES

Colby Junior College
New London, New Hampshire

Pennsylvania Politics, 1817-1832. A Game without Rules. By Philip S. Klein. Philadelphia: The Historical Society of Pennsylvania, 1940. Pp. viii, 430. Illustrated. \$3.50.

This book covers a period of Pennsylvania political history so far left relatively untouched. It is not surprising that historians have neglected it, for, despite the interconnections between Pennsylvania politics and national politics during this period, and despite the special interest the period has as a transition interval when the fundamentals of later political alignments and practices were struggling to take shape, the period in itself is rather forbidding.

It was a time of almost meaningless confusion, largely owing to the inchoate character of party politics. That the author has reduced this confusion to something like understandable order is a real achievement. The difficulty of his task is suggested by the party nomenclature he has had to adopt—the Family, the anti-Family Democrats, the Jacksonian Federalist, the Eleventh Hour Men, and so on. For the so-called Era of Good Feeling ushered in an era of factional strife based upon no issue or program more significant than the desire of certain ambitious leaders and certain sectional units to wrest power from other ambitious leaders and other sectional units. Thus the "Favorite Sons" controversies of national politics were duplicated and imitated in terms of state sectionalism, and the spoils system appeared to be the be-all and end-all of politics. It is partly to the complexity and prolongation of these factional conflicts within the state that Dr. Klein attributes Pennsylvania's decline in national leadership—a decline out of proportion to its apparent advantage in wealth and past accomplishment.

As regards economic interpretation, this decade of politics appears to be one of those relatively rare periods that do not yield much meaning when measured by the usual formulae—except for the very end of the period when the rise of the tariff issue began to provide a more logical basis for party alignment.

That the author has been able to give some struc-

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ture to the chaos of this period is a tribute, in the first place, to his knowledge of the minutiae of the subject, and secondly, to his gift for presenting his material in readable form. The quantity and variety of reading that has gone into the creation of the book is most impressive—letters, speeches, political pamphlets, newspapers, biographies—all have resulted in a thorough knowledge of the subject that is evidenced in the body of the text itself even more than in the footnotes and well arranged bibliography. And in spite of this mass of detail, he has never lost sight of whatever main trend of thought he is trying to pursue but marches steadily toward that end, enlivening his pages with anecdote, quotation and pointed comment.

In the long run the chief significance of the period seems to be its picture of the gradual emergence of new political methods, such as the national convention in place of the caucus, and its demonstration (in reverse) of the necessity of at least some genuine issues as a basis for political organization.

MILLICENT B. REX

The Madeira School
Greenway, Virginia

The Social Role of the Man of Knowledge. By Florian Znaniecki. New York: Columbia University Press, 1940. Pp. 212. \$2.50.

Theoretical sociologists are laboring mightily to objectify and systematize their vast domain. Few of their works are intelligible to the uninitiated, if for no other reason than that they involve familiarity with a specialized vocabulary consisting of accepted terms used in an unusual sense and new concepts or new combinations of concepts which the theoretician employs in his search for precise verbal instruments with which to fashion his ideas.

To these contributions to systematic classification Professor Znaniecki's novel approach to the "sociology of knowledge" belongs. The question he poses is an interesting one: "How can it be that scientists, men who indulge in cultivating knowledge instead of being efficiently active like everybody else, are not only tolerated by men of action but granted a social status and regarded as performing a desirable social function?" In his mind the question resolves itself to this: Who are the "men of knowledge" and what are their social roles?

Practical knowledge, he finds, is possessed primarily by "technologists" who perform the occupational functions and "sages" who conserve and justify the common knowledge of social groups. But "there must be, obviously a source of valuation of knowledge different from recognition of its practical utility"; hence the existence of "sacred schools" and "religious scholars," on the one hand, and of "secular

scholars," on the other. Six varieties of the latter are described, including "the discoverer of truth," "the systematizer," "the fighter for truth," and "the disseminator of knowledge." Furthermore, "scientists" who do more in their social roles than is expected of them are classified as "discoverers of facts" or "discoverers of problems."

Professor Znaniecki belongs to the group of "inductive theorists," who would apply the methods of the natural and physical sciences to societal phenomena. "New, hitherto undreamed-of possibilities of cultural evolution," he insists, "can be discovered only by objective, strictly theoretic sciences, unrestricted by any technical or ideological considerations."

NORMAN D. PALMER

Colby College
Waterville, Maine

Growing Up in the Black Belt. By Charles S. Johnson. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1941. Pp. xxiii, 360. \$2.25.

The framework within which Johnson has studied the problem of personality development in southern rural Negro youth is that of the relation of personality to culture. Personality is conceived as the organization of the individual's habits and behavior patterns in adjustment to his environment and in his effort not merely to survive but to achieve a career. Since the emphasis here is upon the minority racial status of Negro youth, the work is interested in defining the social environment in its racial implications (status and security, the school, the church, play, occupational outlook and incentives, attitudes toward sex and marriage, intrarace marriage, and relations with whites).

Johnson finds the factor of economic insecurity to be more limiting than the segregation laws enforced against the Negro. He points out that some Southern Negro youth have never heard a radio, nor seen a motion picture, and spend most of their leisure time at "talking games." The matriarchial system of family organization is rapidly breaking down. Rural Negro girls demand a husband "who will support me" and seem to be no longer willing to suffer the disadvantages of rearing large families, of being the family's major wage earner, or of working in the fields as a farm hand. There appears to be a large increase in the rigidity of sex standard with some increase in the restraints on actual sex experiences. The emotional hold of the church on the Negro is still strong. "Its greatest present value appears to be that of providing emotional relief for the fixed problems of a hard life."

Other interesting and dramatic facts will award those who will spend an evening on this important work—and no student of our minorities problem can afford not to give more than one evening to it. Not

only is Dr. Johnson a good organizer, as shown by his ability to integrate so well the findings of his assistants and staff workers, but a good writer, for he has succeeded in injecting in a much overworked topic a lot of vigor and freshness. He has again demonstrated—as in his numerous other works—his capacity for a magnificent virtuosity in the management of his material.

JOSEPH S. ROUCEK

Hofstra College
Hempstead, Long Island

Toward A New Order of Sea Power. By Harold and Margaret Sprout. Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1940. Pp. xiii, 332. \$3.75.

Democracies engaged in a life and death struggle with totalitarian states will do well to examine the history of their policies of national defense. This second volume of the Sprout's promised trilogy, which is to trace the development of United States' sea power from the Revolution of 1776 until the present time, covers American naval policy and world politics during the transition period in British naval history, 1890-1922, and explains many of our present problems. Though not a definitive study—the United States' Government Archives are not open to scholars beyond 1906—it brings to light important materials from the manuscript diaries and other personal records of some of the makers of recent naval policy and is an excellent synthesis of the administrative, legislative, professional navy and press opinion of the period. It pictures the democratic process at work on the question of national defense—the group interests which strive to check, modify or destroy each other in the name of the national welfare—the absence, then as now, of a concerted national purpose.

The Washington Conference of 1921-22 is the focus of the book—a conference called to work out a new order of sea power. Britain's command of the waterways of the world had reached its zenith by 1890. Thereafter, other nations inspired by the philosophy of Admiral Mahan challenged with growing naval strength her regional if not world superiority and the technological development of war ships and later of airplanes steadily narrowed the area possible for large scale naval operations. Britain met her chief competitors with political deftness, an alliance with Japan in which she was the senior partner and a frank recognition of the rightful dominance of the United States in the western hemisphere. The World War expanded the naval ambitions of these three states. Great Britain emerged from the conflict cherishing the greatest of navies in a world no one navy could patrol. America, now a first class power, aspired to a fleet second to none. Japan, the new empire builder of the western Pacific, demanded the maintenance of her strategic *status quo*.

Urged by people at home and abroad to check the consequent building of competitive fleets, President Harding invited the principal naval powers and China to send representatives to Washington in the autumn of 1921 to limit armaments and to reach a common agreement with respect to the principles and policies of the Far East. The three treaties which resulted recognized the regional naval controls of the United States, Great Britain and Japan, fixed the ratio and limited the building of their capital ships, substituted Anglo-American cooperation and mutual non-aggression pledges covering island possessions in the Pacific for the Anglo-Japanese alliance, and guaranteed the independence and territorial integrity of China. A new stable order in sea power might have been founded had the nations faced realistically the interdependence of land power and sea power, especially in Europe, and had they restricted the building of airplanes, submarines and other auxiliary craft. With disgruntled and ambitious peoples free to build at will these weapons, the not distant future could hold no peace.

GRACE FOX

Washington, D.C.

James VI of Scotland and the Throne of England. By Helen G. Stafford. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1940. Pp. viii, 336. \$3.75.

James I of England may have been "the wisest fool in Christendom." But James VI of Scotland was a remarkably able ruler who made few mistakes. In 1568 when Mary Stewart fled to England, the Scottish crown had reached the nadir of its fortunes. The feudal nobility defied it with impunity, the kirk was well on its way toward establishing an independent spiritual regiment. There seemed little chance that James, Mary Stewart's son, could become Elizabeth's successor in England. Yet by 1603 James had succeeded, despite a chronic impecuniosity, in reducing Scotland to order and in making himself acceptable to all parties as king of England.

It is this story which with admirable clarity Miss Stafford relates. Her book is not a biography of James the man, nor yet a study of James the Scottish administrator. Its theme is rather James the political intriguer who labored for two decades, and successfully, to achieve his twin ends, the consolidation of Scotland and the throne of England. This book is a corrective to the notion that James was utterly pedantic, inept, stupid.

The picture of James which emerges from Miss Stafford's pages is that of the *Politique* who knows just as well as his more famous neighbor sovereign how to play politics for international stakes. James realized perfectly well that to secure the English throne he must pursue a *via media* and alienate no formidable body of opinion. Posing as the champion

of "the true religion," he laid plans for a Protestant League and negotiated for an alliance with the Low Countries. At the same time he remained on friendly terms with the Catholic nobility in Scotland and gave the pope and moderate English Catholics to understand that at the very least he favored toleration for Catholics. Yet with it all he saw with rare perception that what counted most for his succession was the friendship of England's Queen and a favorable English public opinion. The upshot of his diplomacy was unmitigated success.

FRANKLIN L. BAUMER

Yale University

New Haven, Connecticut.

John and William Bartram. By E. Earnest. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1940. Pp. 182. \$2.00.

Those beautiful, spacious gardens located at the lower bend of the Schuylkill have always contained for many a deep, hidden mystery. That mystery was the men behind their creation and development—the Bartrams.

To many, John Bartram has always been a man apart—interested in what made the substance as well as the spirit of life. The story of that patient, searching botanist has now been unearthed and told in this engaging little book.

John Bartram's energy was contagious, and it is no wonder that the son, the beloved "Billy," followed with such purpose in the father's footsteps. The author does not quite do justice to William Bartram. The reader is left in a veritable maze of questions. What sort of man was William Bartram? What of the poesy and the pragmatism that seemed to rend him? What of his relation with the poet Wordsworth? These are but a few of the demands the reader is constantly making as this all too short work comes to a conclusion. It seems a pity that the author combined both lives in his treatment, yet the two are inextricably entwined. One senses this communion of spirit between father and son that made them dare the sectarianism of the Friends' Meeting, but which at the same moment let them experience that deep religious impulse to find God in the verdant fields and dales, hidden deep within the rock and the wood.

John and William Bartram were strong men, meant for a life of patient and heroic search for knowledge that led them often into the trackless wilderness to discover some new expression of life. The author has caught this adventurous spirit and portrays it with a vividness and a force that are often lacking in biographical sketches.

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TEXTBOOKS AND OTHER TEACHING AIDS

The Development of Hispanic America. By A. Curtis Wilgus. New York: Farrar and Rinehart, Inc., 1941. Pp. xviii, 941. \$4.75.

The current swell of interest in Hispanic America makes the appearance of a new college textbook an event of arresting importance. To a field not overcrowded with usable materials Professor Wilgus, in his new volume, makes singular contributions, especially in the extensive bibliographies, the abundance of maps, and the outlines of constitutions. In his organization, he has attempted "no radical departure from orthodoxy." He follows the conventional pattern of treating the colonial period in the topical manner and the national period in chronological summaries of the twenty countries and their international relations. Slightly less than one-half of the textual material is devoted to the colonial epoch and the remainder to the development of modern states. Thus, the book is admirably suited to use for one or two semesters.

The most distinctive contribution of the volume is its wealth of black and white maps. Professor Wilgus believes, and correctly, that these will help to make up for the lack of a "satisfactory atlas for Hispanic America." The student will be delighted with maps of the routes of conquest and revolutionary campaigns, highways, resources, boundary disputes, political subdivisions, and a dozen other subjects. Unfortunately, however, the maps are not of uniform value. Some, like those on pages 11 and 16, are on too small a scale for clarity, while a few (pp. 28, 163, and 185) are shown on a queer projection.

The author renders noteworthy service by his inclusion of hundreds of bibliographical citations. Most valuable are the scores of references to articles in periodicals, given in footnotes at points where they are germane. More general readings are given at the ends of chapters. These titles would be more useful perhaps if the lists were classified and more carefully limited. In an appendix is reprinted the author's essay on "leading works in various languages dealing with Hispanic America printed since the year 1800."

The book abounds with other features. Wherever possible, years of birth and death of persons are mentioned. In footnotes and in an appendix there are concise outlines of more than a hundred of the numerous Hispanic American constitutions. Other appendices include a glossary of Spanish and Portuguese terms and a chart of statistics on the individual countries.

The chief criticism of Professor Wilgus' work is in his treatment and style. The average undergraduate will desire more of the interpretative and analyti-

cal and less of the encyclopedic. At times the narration approaches the nature of a compendium. On pages 337-339, for example, twelve consecutive paragraphs begin with such an adverbial phrase as "on February 2, 1935." On pages 94-95 sixteen of eighteen consecutive sentences begin with similar expressions. In other places, too, this manner of treatment makes for dullness. For a work of such magnitude there are few errors. The format is excellent, although there are no illustrations.

HAROLD F. PETERSON

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Your Government: Today and Tomorrow. By L. J. O'Rourke. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1941. Pp. xix, 709. Illustrated. \$1.84.

This book is one of the "Correlated Social Studies Series." It is a valuable addition in its field. The volume is intended for senior high school students and college freshmen. It is not only interesting and comprehensive, but presents the subject in a new and vital manner.

The text is divided into three parts. The first discusses the individual's relation to government. This shows that the activity and the character of the citizen determines the kind of government the people will have. The emphasis is placed upon present day problems and their meaning to the individual. The author shows how minority groups by means of organization and propaganda force legislatures to pass laws against the will of the majority.

The finger of scorn is pointed at the disinterested citizen.

Part II, "How Our Government Serves the People," shows the increasing interference of governmental agencies in business and labor. Social welfare, the crime problem, conservation and agriculture are becoming more and more general problems for the federal government to solve. In spite of the limitations in the federal Constitution, the powers of the central government have increased far beyond the intention of the framers of that document.

Part III, "The Organization and Operation of Our Governments," follows the usual course of civics text books. It is true that the author selects the high spots in machinery of government and explains these with illustrations so that the ordinary high school student can easily comprehend them. "The realistic presentation" in this part as well as the other two sections of the book make it extremely valuable for student understanding, especially when combined with the study of current events as provided in senior classes in the high schools of today.

Several outstanding features arouse student interest. Challenging questions are placed at the begin-

ning of each chapter. Suggestions for reports and discussions are placed directly after the day's assignment and not at the end of a long chapter. The cartoons which tell their own story have been carefully selected and the explanation at the bottom of the cartoon leads to a better understanding of the illustration. The few statistical charts could be increased with advantage so as to correlate with the senior high school work in economics and American history. As the title states, this is a book for "today and tomorrow." Many of the problems presented will be solved and will have to be replaced with new ones that will arise, necessitating an annual revision of the text. A careful study of this work must lead not only to a better understanding of the governments in the United States, but will imbue the student with a desire to improve government conditions.

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When The World Was Young. By Martha McBride Morrell. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1941. Pp. xvi, 252. \$3.00.

Here is an excellent book for collateral reading in both the natural and social sciences. Intended to satisfy a popular demand for facts and the more generally accepted theories on the origin and development of the earth, its physiographical features and the long and varied succession of its flora, fauna and human inhabitants, this volume should fascinate both students and teachers alike. Although filled with essential facts, well blended with the curious, textbookishness has been carefully avoided and one gets the impression of a pleasant excursion into prehistory with brief but revealing glimpses into old continents, extinct mountain ranges and seas of the past which harbored and nurtured the ancestral predecessors of all modern living things. The story is so nicely and fluently told that the reader almost senses a feeling of intimacy with such strange creatures as stegosaurus, archaeopteryx, pterodactyl, and scores of others whom most of us think of as museum skeletons.

This book should prove exceedingly valuable to those teachers who wish to introduce their classes to subject matter heretofore little known to non-specialists but now adequately summarized for popular consumption.

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Unit Tests in the Social Studies. By H. E. Dewey. 1941. World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York. Pp. 95. 48 cents. Answer list, 8 cents.

This set of thirteen objective tests on political, social, and economic problems of our nation plus one on International Relations and National Defense will be welcomed by teachers of the senior high school. The tests vary in form, including the multiple choice, the completion, true-false, and matching types. Care was taken to test for judgment as well as for fact, and ways were suggested for using the tests as a teaching device. Dr. Dewey is Associate Professor of Education at the Kansas State Teachers College and principal of the high school. His tests have grown out of many years of practical experience.

PERTINENT PAMPHLETS

What the New Census Means. By Stuart Chase. Public Affairs Pamphlets No. 56, 1941. Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York. Pp. 30. 10 cents.

A popular treatment of some of the 1940 census figures which is especially useful in high-school classes. Population trends during this century, the shifting age-picture, and the effects upon education, housing, consumer demands, war, eugenics, and other pertinent matters are discussed briefly and interestingly by Mr. Chase. Pictographs add much to the story.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

A History of Magic and Experimental Science. By Lynn Thorndike. Vols. V and VI. *The Sixteenth Century.* New York: Columbia University Press, 1941. Pp. xxii, 695; xviii, 766. \$10.00 a set.

With these highly interesting volumes covering roughly the period from 1500 to 1630, Professor Thorndike completes his classical history. As usual, the author's comprehensiveness has something of value for all students of the humanities or the sciences.

The Cambridge History of the British Empire. Vol. II, *The Growth of the New Empire, 1783-1870.* New York: The Macmillan Company, 1940. Pp. xii, 1068. \$10.50.

A continuation of a monumental work in which twenty contributors achieve a commendable unity for a diverse story.

The Educational Philosophy of National Socialism. By George F. Kneller. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1941. Pp. viii, 299. \$3.50.

An excellent volume, presenting paradoxical and complex materials with an objectivity at which nazis might smile. This education is considered primarily a new ideology born of a crisis, not an agency of political power nor a revival of past ideals.

Law without Force: The Function of Politics in International Law. By Gerhart Niemeyer. Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1941. Pp. xiv, 408. \$3.75.

A challenging book which advocates a functional rather than a moral basis for international law. The author attempts an answer to the question, What type of law fits the social structure of this modern world?

Education in the Territories and Outlying Possessions of the United States. By Charles F. Reid. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941. Pp. xxv, 593. \$3.85.

Timely history of the complex forces working in these areas which directly or indirectly affect the school systems. Comparisons and recommendations.

Historiography and Urbanization; Essays in American History in Honor of W. Stull Holt. Edited by Eric F. Goldman. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press, 1941. Pp. 220. \$2.50.

Four essays are primarily concerned with urban history; others discuss school histories in the middle period, Edward Eggleston, and middle states regionalism.

An Analysis of the Specific References to Negroes in Selected Curricula for the Education of Teachers. By Edna M. Colson. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1940. Pp. x, 178. \$2.00.

A study which demonstrates the school's responsibility for a lack of understanding and knowledge, with recommendations for selection and emphasis in curricula materials.

Sociology. By Emory S. Bogardus. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1941. Revised Edition. Pp. xii, 567. \$3.00

A well-known text which emphasizes the social group interpretation. Ecological, cultural, and psycho-social factors are stressed.

Teaching the Social Studies in Secondary Schools. By Arthur C. Bining and David H. Bining. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1941. Revised edition. Pp. xiv, 378. \$2.75.

A revised and enlarged edition of a widely-used textbook in teacher-training institutions.

Organizing the Social Studies in Secondary Schools. By Arthur C. Bining, Walter H. Mohr, and Richard H. McFeely. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1941. Pp. xi, 337. \$2.75.

Underlying theories and principles for organizing the social studies, the general nature of the social

studies curriculum, and plans and methods of organizing the materials of instruction.

Consumer Education in the Schools. By Herbert A. Tonne. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1941. Pp. xiii, 365. \$2.85.

A good survey of the consumer education movement.

The Development of Hispanic America. By A. Curtis Wilgus. New York: Farrar and Rinehart, Inc., 1941. Pp. xviii, 941. Illustrated. \$4.75.

A useful text divided into two essential sections, before and after 1824. Excellent text aids.

Eastern Workingmen and National Land Policy, 1829-1862. By Helen S. Zahler. New York: Columbia University Press, 1941. Pp. x, 246. \$2.25.

The labor agitation for land reform, the methods used and the benefits obtained.

Our Nation. By Eugene C. Barker and Henry S. Commager. Evanston, Illinois: Row, Peterson and Company, 1941. Pp. viii, 974. Illustrated. \$2.48.

A well-balanced, eleventh or twelfth grade history based on a flexible unit-topical plan. Clarity is not sacrificed for brevity; source materials are well-coordinated with the text.

Your Government: Today and Tomorrow. By L. J. O'Rourke. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1941. Pp. xix, 709. Illustrated. \$1.84.

A dynamic text which emphasizes the individual's relation to government. Offers a good background for stimulating student activities.

All American Aircraft. By Ernest K. Gann. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1941. Pp. vi, 122. Illustrated. \$2.00.

Well illustrated manual which describes forty of the most important types.

The Telephone in a Changing World. By Marion M. Dilts. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1941. Pp. xiv, 219. \$2.50.

Readable combination of cultural and technical information.

Historic Restorations of the Daughters of the American Revolution. By Lewis Barrington. New York: Richard R. Smith, 1941. Illustrated. \$3.50.

A lavishly illustrated album of about 200 buildings, with the legends and known history of each neatly presented.